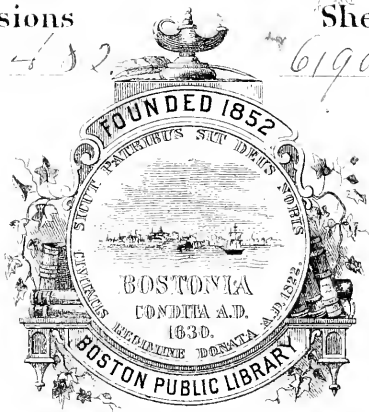


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THE

MORAL AND INTELLECTUAL

INFLUENCE OF LIBRARIES

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THE
MORAL AND INTELLECTUAL
INFLUENCE OF LIBRARIES
UPON
SOCIAL PROGRESS.

AN ADDRESS DELIVERED BEFORE THE NEW YORK HISTORICAL SOCIETY, ON ITS
SIXTY-FIRST ANNIVERSARY, TUESDAY, NOVEMBER 21, 1865.

BY
FREDERIC DE PEYSTER,

President of the Society.



NEW YORK:
PUBLISHED FOR THE SOCIETY.
M.DCCC.LXVI.

At a stated meeting of the NEW YORK HISTORICAL SOCIETY, held in its Hall, on Tuesday evening, November 21st, 1865, to celebrate the 61st Anniversary of the founding of the Society :

The Address was delivered by the President of the Society, FREDERIC DE PEYSTER, ESQ.; the subject being, THE MORAL AND INTELLECTUAL INFLUENCE OF LIBRARIES ON SOCIAL PROGRESS.

On its conclusion, the Rev. SAMUEL OSGOOD, D. D., after some remarks, submitted the following resolution, which was adopted :

RESOLVED, That the thanks of the Society be presented to its President, FREDERIC DE PEYSTER, ESQ., for his instructive and interesting discourse before the Society this evening, and that a copy be requested for its archives.

A true extract from the minutes.

ANDREW WARNER,

Recording Secretary.



Officers of the Society, 1866.

PRESIDENT,

FREDERIC DE PEYSTER.

FIRST VICE-PRESIDENT,

THOMAS DE WITT, D. D.

SECOND VICE-PRESIDENT,

BENJAMIN ROBERT WINTHROP.

FOREIGN CORRESPONDING SECRETARY,

GEORGE BANCROFT, LL. D.

DOMESTIC CORRESPONDING SECRETARY,

JOHN ROMEYN BRODHEAD, LL. D.

RECORDING SECRETARY,

ANDREW WARNER.

TREASURER,

BENJAMIN H. FIELD.

LIBRARIAN,

GEORGE HENRY MOORE.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.

FIRST CLASS—FOR ONE YEAR.

GEORGE FOLSOM, JOHN W. DRAPER,
ROBERT L. STUART.

SECOND CLASS—FOR TWO YEARS.

AUGUSTUS SCHELL, ERASTUS C. BENEDICT,
BENJAMIN W. BONNEY.

THIRD CLASS—FOR THREE YEARS.

SAMUEL OSGOOD, WILLIAM CHAUNCEY,
CHARLES P. KIRKLAND.

AUGUSTUS SCHELL, *Chairman.*
GEORGE H. MOORE, *Secretary.*

[The officers of the Society are members, *ex officio*, of the Executive Committee.]

COMMITTEE ON THE FINE ARTS.

ABRAHAM COZZENS, WILLIAM J. HOPPIN,
JONATHAN STURGES, THOMAS J. BRYAN,
ANDREW WARNER, EDWARD SATTERLEE.

ABRAHAM M. COZZENS, *Chairman.*
ANDREW WARNER, *Secretary.*

[The President, Librarian and Chairman of the Executive Committee are members, *ex officio*, of the Committee on the Fine Arts.]



ANNIVERSARY ADDRESS.

MR. VICE-PRESIDENT, AND FELLOW-MEMBERS OF THE
NEW YORK HISTORICAL SOCIETY :



THE subject which I purpose to consider this evening is—*The Moral and Intellectual Influence of Libraries upon Social Progress*. As this subject is to be viewed in its special relations to our own country, and to the responsibilities and duties which in this respect are imposed upon us, I shall first ask your attention to some remarks upon the growth of certain great principles and ideas in the history of the nation, and the position occupied by this Republic in the social progress of the world.

In doing this, I shall refer more especially to some recent facts which it is eminently suitable for us, as a Historical Society, to consider.

Since we last met, on a similar occasion, a year has passed which is indissolubly connected with the future welfare and happiness of America. It cannot fail to be forever prominently conspicuous in the annals of our country, and to hold up, not only to our own citizens, but to the people of other lands, the standard of human liberty and human rights which is destined to wave over a world disenthralled.

This brief period is crowded with the achievements of a mighty nation, rising in its conscious strength to subdue a Rebellion at enmity with American principles and Democratic freedom, and impelled by a deep sense of its imperative obligations to preserve, at every hazard and under all emergencies, the PALLADIUM of its existence, the UNION; its REPUBLICAN INSTITUTIONS, and the Supremacy of the FEDERAL GOVERNMENT throughout the length and breadth of THE UNITED STATES.

In the face of this gigantic strife, of lurking treason in the loyal States, and of the sympathy and material aid, which the ruling classes in certain portions of Europe covertly or openly extended to the States in rebellion; most triumphantly and effectually has the American Republic executed its firm resolve, by the gallantry of its true-hearted people, their exhaustless endurance, and their many and severe sacrifices.

By the blessing of the SOVEREIGN RULER of the Universe, who guides the destinies of nations, these patriotic efforts, and an unflinching devotion to

duty, which “a sense of justice” and of “a common brotherhood” have intensified, have maintained the cause of right and of freedom, and established, as on a rock of adamant, the great and fundamental principles upon which this Republic rests.

And now, in the presence of these great principles and these glorious events, with their resulting benefits, we are here assembled to celebrate our Sixty-first Anniversary. Our thoughts naturally revert to these interesting and important circumstances, because with them are connected the future destiny of our country. These reflections create a just and national pride which makes the American citizen sensible that it is a mighty nation which upholds the

“Flag of the free heart’s only home!”

A brief review of the various and eventful facts which are embraced in the recent war, but more especially of those which relate to the present year, cannot fail to demonstrate the value of their influence in every portion of this vast continent, where various races are struggling for the blessings of Civil and Religious Freedom, as well as in the Old World, where ever its institutions, its usages, and its injustice to the masses come in contact with our own free, liberty-loving, and representative form of Republican Government.

“The love of liberty,” says Mr. Webster, in his Address delivered before this Society, “is a passion

“or sentiment which existed in intense force in the
“Grecian Republics, and in the better ages of Rome.
“It exists now, and, first of all, on that portion of
“the western continent in which we live. Here it
“burns with heat and with splendor beyond all
“Grecian and all Roman example. It is not a
“light in the Temple of Minerva; it is not the
“vestal flame of Rome: it is the light of the sun—
“it is the illumination of all the constellations.
“Earth, air, and ocean, and all the heavens above
“us, are filled with its glorious shining; and al-
“though the passion and the sentiment are the same,
“yet he who would reason from Grecian liberty or
“Roman freedom to our intelligent American liberty,
“would be holding a farthing candle to the orb of
“day.”

Such a retrospect is not taken in a spirit which seeks to depreciate institutions essentially differing from our own, or merely to indulge a sentiment, however just and proper, which derives gratification from this contrast; but from a justifiable desire to vindicate the truths and establish the rights which have become the present property and the future heritage of our countrymen.

In the literature and art of every country there breathes a spirit which is inspired by the patriotism and patriotic exploits of the people. History, Poetry and the Fine Arts will impart fresh interest, and lend a grace to scenes which are identified with the present

era in our history. Time, as it rolls on, and future generations succeed the witnesses who have looked upon those scenes and participated in them, will furnish opportunities to genius and artistic taste, to render immortal every distinctive feature which truth can illustrate or imagination depict; in order fully to present a faithful portraiture of this eventful period.

Before I proceed to consider, however, the operation of great Christian principles which are the source of what are known and recognized among us as *American ideas*; I desire to pay a merited compliment to our own State for the position which she took and gallantly maintained during the whole of the late rebellion.

I am aware that the occurrences of the recent civil war are national in their character, and that objection may be made to their introduction in an Address before an Association of a local designation; but it must be borne in mind that this Society is not exclusively a State organization. Its founders were actuated by patriotic, liberal, and enlarged sentiments. They considered it to be not only their duty, but a duty incumbent on their successors, to procure, and preserve for historical investigation and illustration, whatever related to the four departmental objects which were embraced in their well-considered design.

This effort on their part was seconded by the Legislature of the State of New York in 1809. In the Act which incorporated this Institution, passed on

the 10th of February in that year, these several departments are described as those which embrace, in the following order, "the Natural, Civil, Literary, "and Ecclesiastical History of the United States in "general, and of this State in particular." Thus, this Society has a *National* as well as a *State* designation and character in this wide domain of literature.

The rebellion, recently subdued, arose from conflicting views, involving questions and principles not only connected with the United States at large, but with the alleged rights and privileges which appertained to each State; especially of those whose object was to sustain the States in rebellion, in order to justify their attempt to secede, and thus to overthrow the Union.

Against that gigantic attempt, the State of New York—no "wayward sister"—promptly met her obligations to the Union. She knew well that with the preservation of it was bound up the national existence. Both being thus imperiled, she armed for the conflict, raised aloft the star-spangled banner, and called upon her sons to march to the rescue; and to show, by their valor and their devotion, their determination that the national flag should wave upon every foot of land, over which the Federal Government ought, by the common compact, to be and continue supreme. They nobly responded to her summons, and heroically, on many a well-fought field, as in the deadly breach, maintained

her plighted faith and honor, and manifested their own patriotism and indomitable courage.

This loyal State—great in all the elements which have given her a distinguished position among her sister communities—will never forget her surviving, nor cease to lament her lost heroes! Her grief for those who have perished on the battle-field, or by the perils of a soldier's life in active service, finds expression in a line of the Roman poet, which, in few but touching words, describes the anguish of Orpheus, disconsolate for the loss of his beloved wife Eurydice—

“Te veniente die, te decedente canebat.”

Inconsovable for her death, caused “by the bite of “a serpent,” he descended to the lower world, and, by the charms of his lyre, “won the ear of Pluto” to let her return to earth, on the condition that he would not look round upon her until he had reached it. In the ardency of his love, he *looked back*, forgetful of his promise, and thus forever lost

“His half-regain'd Eurydice.”

But our noble State, ever mindful of the bonds which bind her and her children to the UNION, considered it to be a religious duty on their part to peril their lives in its defense, against foes “more “vengeful than the serpent's tooth.” She *looked up* to the heavens above in the pious hope that those of

her sons who had fallen in the late strife had there found an entrance, in the solemn, mortal hour; whether on the battle-field, the picket, the march, the deck, or when stretched on a pallet in the lonely hospital; by that "watch-word at the gates
"of death"

——"the soul's sincere desire,
"Utter'd or unexpress'd,
"The motion of a hidden fire
"That trembles in the breast."

She calls to mind—as who does not that has been a careful observer?—the repeated occurrences where the love of country has triumphed over the pangs of dissolution; and enabled the dying volunteer, as he gathered his remaining strength for the effort, to ejaculate a blessing upon the Union—

"Et dulces, moriens, reminiscitur Argos."

Whilst, however, I thus commend my own native State, I am not unmindful of the like patriotic devotion of the gallant volunteers of every other loyal State. Together they all battled for the same glorious Union; together the living mingle their joy for its preservation; and together they are associated in that warm sympathy which the calamities of this sad war have awakened in loving and loyal hearts.

That devastating war, which the people of all the States can now scan in its fearful and yet glorious results, was a war of opinions! It was a clashing of

prejudices and interests, intensified by local peculiarities, which led ultimately to "the irrepressible conflict." Now, also, we can calmly and more clearly estimate its huge proportions, the vastness of the materials required for its vigorous prosecution, and the necessary and innumerable appliances demanded by the rapid strides, which emergencies developed in military science and the "art of war."

These and various other and manifold incidents are associated with the crowning events which decided that conflict. How forcibly in this connection do those memorable lines from "The Battle Field," by our own liberty-loving poet, apply to this decisive result.

"Truth crushed to earth shall rise again :

"The eternal years of God are her's ;

"But Error, wounded, writhes with pain,

"And dies among his worshippers."

All these incidents have now passed into history ! When the materials which relate to this rebellion are fully gathered and carefully systematized, and from these its history is written in a philosophical spirit, marked by the rare qualities which distinguished the "Father of History"—in imitation of Thucydides, who said of his great work that it was not written "for the entertainment of the moment, but to be a possession forever ;" with the creamy richness of Livy—"Livii lactea ubertas ;" and, above all, with the pen of truth and the charity that "rejoiceth in

“the truth” and “never faileth,” our Republican Institutions may then, with a just and an ennobling pride, rest their merits and their fame on this graphic, unimpeachable and immortal RECORD.

Great and glorious as are the triumphs and military prowess of the nation, its civil history has also its proud record to display.

In November, 1864, in the minds of many, at home and abroad, whose “wish” probably was “father to the thought,” a national crisis was at hand, which might change the character of the civil war then reaching its climax. The general election on the eighth day of that month for electors of the President and Vice-President of the United States, was to determine whether the existing policy of the Federal Government was to be sustained or changed.

Well might the Old World, with its antipathies and antiquated views, from *its stand-point*, apprehend disastrous consequences from this exercise of the supreme will of the people.

The loyal men of the country knew better the magnitude of the issues at stake, and the responsibility resting upon *them*. Without clamor or tumult they deposited their ballots, which by an overwhelming majority decided that ABRAHAM LINCOLN, their tried, staunch, upright and able leader, was to retain command of the ship of State, and that ANDREW JOHNSON, equally reliable, fearless, true and just, should be next in authority; a result that afforded conclusive assurance

that with the rebellion should also perish the cause of it.

This decisive result is the best test that could be afforded of the mind of the people, their intelligent action and firm resolve. Never was an imperative duty fraught with vital results more patriotically or conscientiously discharged. This decision was a most significant fact of the law-abiding character of the people upon whom, under God, depended the destiny of the nation. This event was a noble example of the Union sentiment overlooking all minor differences and considerations, and it infused fresh vigor in the national councils.

In moral grandeur this scene transcends any recorded event in the civil history of any country in ancient or modern times! It is a proud record of republican institutions in their representative combination, moving harmoniously in concert in times of eminent peril, as they had in the times previous when the blessing of peace rested on them. Justly may America challenge the world for a parallel!

From this commanding eminence the dawn of the coming day becomes more visible which is to shed its noontide of glory upon our vast national territory blessed with universal freedom, secured to every portion of the Republic by the Constitutional Amendment (certain of adoption), which is the permanent extinction of slavery. "The liberty of Athens, and "of the other Grecian Republics, being founded in

“pure democracy,” Mr. Webster, in the Address already referred to, asserted, “was fitted only for small States. The exercise of popular power in a purely democratic form cannot be spread over countries of large extent; because in such countries all cannot assemble in the same place, to vote directly upon laws and ordinances, and other public questions. But the principle of representation is expansive—it may be enlarged, if not infinitely, yet indefinitely, to meet new occasions and embrace new regions. While, therefore, the love of liberty was the same, and its general principle the same in the Grecian Republics as with us, yet not only were the forms essentially different, but that also was wanting, which we have been taught to consider as indispensable to its security—that is, a fixed, settled, definite, fundamental law or Constitution, imposing limitations and restraints equally on governors and governed. We may, therefore, inhale all the fullness and freshness of the Grecian spirit, but we necessarily give its development a different form, and subject it to new modifications.”

Is, then, joy that the Union is preserved, and that this “fundamental law” is to be fixed and definite, which makes no exception to limit freedom, not to find expression on an occasion like this? In the presence of these deeds is it inappropriate for me, in this honored place, to rejoice that liberty at length has become universal by the triumph of *American ideas*; promul-

gated by the founders of our republican form of government, which in process of time have worked out their own solution? I need not, I feel assured, anticipate an unfavorable judgment; for the facts stated furnish no reproach but to disloyalty, whilst the inferences they suggest are unmingled in intention with party feeling or political bias!

But whilst these ideas are entitled to all the admiration which the remembrance of their solemn promulgation on the 4th of July, 1776, never fails to excite; yet we should never forget their original source, and their living inculcation by the Divine Author of Christianity. In few but significantly impressive words He defined the two great principles which were to be the basis of the religion which He taught, and the rule of action for all those who were to be gathered within its vast fold. These were "Love to God—and to man!" These two precepts are the first and the last links in a chain on which all the intermediate ones depend. He dignified human nature in His own person, and taught that God was no respecter of persons—for He judged the heart, out of which were the issues of good and evil. His doctrines and teachings were designed for the elevation of the masses: therefore "the common people heard him gladly." Such was the essence of Christianity! It fought to recover mankind, by its teachings and practice, from ignorance and vice to true knowledge and virtue.

The following description, by Bishop Porteus, of its tendency and results, is so admirable, that I cannot deny myself the pleasure of repeating it :

“Although Christianity has not always been so well understood, nor so honestly practiced, as it ought to have been ; although its spirit has been often mistaken, and its precepts misapplied ; yet, under all these disadvantages, it has gradually produced a visible change in those points which most materially concern the peace and quiet of the world. Its beneficent spirit has spread itself through all the different relations and modifications of life, and communicated its kindly influence to almost every public and private concern of mankind. It has insensibly worked itself into the inmost frame and constitution of civil States. It has given a tinge to the complexion of their Governments, to the temper and administration of their laws. It has restrained the spirit of the prince and the madness of the people. It has softened the rigor of despotism, and tamed the insolence of conquest. It has, in some degree, taken away the edge of the sword, and thrown even over the horrors of war a veil of mercy. It has descended into families, has diminished the pressure of private tyranny, improved every domestic endearment, given tenderness to the parent, humanity to the master, respect to superiors, to inferiors ease ; so that mankind are upon the whole, even in a temporal view, under infinite obligations to the mild

“and pacific temper of the Gospel, and have reaped
“from it more substantial worldly benefits than from
“any other institution upon earth.”

At the time that these United States sprang into existence, like Minerva, full armed, but not, like fiery Mars, heedlessly eager for the combat, it was no sudden impulse that induced them to put forth that immortal manifesto. They had been trained gradually to the adoption of measures which, by the peace of 1783, secured their independence, but which had been forced upon them by the usurpation of the British Government and Parliament, and the indifference and neglect of the English nation to their repeated applications for redress. The people of this country walked in the light of civil and religious liberty, and of that freedom which was the common privilege of all.

Independence was the first fruit of this “Declaration,” and one of its noblest productions. There remained the fulfillment of their further promulgation, that among the “unalienable rights” enumerated in that extraordinary and immortal Document, were those of “life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness.”

Under the guidance of an All-Wise and All-Seeing Providence these truths, deathless, and pregnant with ultimate success, were the fruit of those very *ideas* which years of Colonial subjection had instilled into the minds of the leading men of the revolutionary

æra, as well as into those of their progenitors, and which had been transmitted by them and their children from generation to generation. These great truths, subjected to every kind of doubtful disputation, have at length, after four score and ten years of probation, become triumphant by the "fundamental law"—the Constitutional Amendment—which, with the abolition of slavery, permanently establishes their vindication.

Thus it has happened that when the "corner stone" of a new political edifice was attempted to be laid, which was antagonistic to these *truths*, and to our Republican form of Government, the stone itself rebounded, and crushed the very "Institution" which it was designed to perpetuate!

The seal of the public approbation of that memorable measure, when finally affixed by the dominant will of the People to the solemn ratification of the principles which those inestimable truths nearly a century since proclaimed, is the indisputable evidence that Liberty has become like the pure air of heaven—a universal boon throughout this great Republic. It will prove to be the Polar Star of America, attract to our shores the oppressed of other lands who pant for the blessings of constitutional freedom, which a powerful nation places within their reach; subject only to the wholesome restraints of equal laws, applicable alike to *free men*.

But independently of its home influences, that in-

valuable measure, when it shall become a fundamental law of the land, will stimulate the Republics* on this Continent, still lying in the darkness which is not yet irradiated by the light of Civil and Religious Freedom, to follow in the footsteps of this Great Republic, and strive to imitate her successful career.

How forcibly does this glorious consummation recall to mind the joy of the Jews, after the Decree of Cyrus had restored them to liberty and their homes, with permission to rebuild their City and Temple, when "the captivity of Zion" was ended.

When this news was made known to them, they are represented to have been "like them that dream;" like as were the inhabitants of the Grecian cities when Titus Quintius Flamininus, by proclamation, restored them to liberty, to exemption from taxes, and the privilege of living according to their own laws.

This occurred at the time of the Isthmian Games, about one hundred and ninety-six years before the Christian æra. The Romans were seated to behold them—multitudes from all Greece being there assembled, a herald went into the circus to announce the games, none but the Roman general knowing what was to follow.

Silence being obtained, the herald solemnly pronounced the following brief but terse proclamation:

"Senatus Romanus et T. Quinctius, Imperator, Phillippo rege Macedonibusque devictis; liberos, immunes, suis legibus esse jubet Corinthios, Pho-

“cenſes, Locrenſeſque omnes, et Inſulam Eubœam,
 “et Magnetæ, Theſſalos, Perrhæbos, Achæos,
 “Phthiotas.”

The Roman Senate and T. Quintius, the General, having vanquiſhed King Phillip and the Macedonians, do ordain that the Corinthians, Phocians, all the Locrians, the Eubœans, the Magnetiſians, Theſſalians, Perrhæbians, Achæans and Phthiotians, ſhall be free, be delivered from all taxes, and live according to their own laws.

Livy relates the impreſſion which this generous act produced on the aſtoniſhed Grecians in a manner affecting as it is natural, and in a part of his remarks in words almoſt identical with thoſe of King David in the hundred and twenty-fixth Pſalm. “This proclamation of the herald being heard, there was ſuch joy that the people in general could not comprehend it. Scarcely could any perſon believe what he had heard. They gazed on each other, wondering as if it had been *ſome illuſion, ſimilar to a dream*; and although all were intereſted in what was ſpoken, none could truſt his own ears, but inquired each from him who ſtood next to him what it was that was proclaimed. The herald was again called, as each expreſſed the ſtrongeſt deſire not only to hear, but ſee the meſſenger of his own liberty: the herald therefore repeated the proclamation.” I now quote from the original—“Tum ab certo jam gaudio tantus cum clamore plauſus eſt

“ortus, totiesque repetitus, ut facile appareret, nihil
“omnium bonorum multitudini gratius quam *Lib-*
“*ertatem* esse.” When by this repetition the glad tidings were confirmed, there arose such a shout, accompanied with repeated clapping of hands, as plainly showed that *of all good things none is so dear to the multitude as Liberty!*¹

Well might Cicero exclaim, “O! nomen dulce
“libertatis! O! jus eximium nostræ civitatis!”²

These reminiscences of the past are vividly repeated in the recent occurrences of our day. The “Eman-
“cipation Proclamation” and the martyrdom for Liberty of Abraham Lincoln, have made his name imperishable as history itself. To use his own words, he was “with malice towards none; with charity for
“all; with firmness in the right, as God gives us
“to see the right.”

The efforts of his successor, in a like liberty-loving spirit, hold out the expectation that Andrew Johnson may with greater force be considered, in the words which Cicero applied to Virgil, and Virgil, in the *Æneid*, to Iulus—“*Magnæ spes altera Romæ.*” For to him is now committed the arduous task of carrying into effect the recommendations of his illustrious predecessor, which were “to finish the
“work we are in; to bind up the nation’s wounds;
“to care for him who shall have borne the bat-
“tles, and his widow and orphans; to do all
“which may achieve and cherish a just and a

“lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations.”

When this work is done, and the Union is restored to its true equipoise, when liberty is made secure by Constitutional law, and the bitterness of the past is removed by such influences as spring from the teachings of the martyred Lincoln, then shall all America be enabled fully to respond to the sentiments of the great Roman orator, “O! sweet name of Liberty! “O! unparalleled right of our country!”

The object of introducing this historical illustration is not only to trace the deep-rooted sentiment of liberty, whose fibres penetrate the inmost recesses of the human heart, in all classes and among all races; but to show also the beneficial results which flow from a generous and wisely liberal policy.

The reconstruction of the States recently in rebellion calls for magnanimity in action and wisdom in execution of the plans to be devised, which shall restore harmony among all the States, strengthen anew the bonds of a common Union, and guard with precautionary and judicious measures the restored rights of the Freedmen.

In these latter respects the course of Flamininus presents an instructive lesson, deserving the attention which that lesson invites. “His conduct,” remarks Dr. Anthon, in a brief sketch which the learned professor has given of Flamininus, “throughout these “memorable transactions was marked by a wisdom,

“moderation and liberality seldom found united in a victorious Roman general. He was thus the means of protracting the independence of the Greek States for half a century longer.”³

When Flaminius had settled the affairs of Greece, he prepared to return to Rome (194 B. C.) Before leaving Corinth for this purpose, he withdrew his garriſons from all the Grecian cities, and finally carried out the provisions of his proclamation. Immunity from taxation was included in thoſe provisions, but ſuch an immunity, where representation exiſts, is not applicable to our American States. Deputations from thoſe cities aſſembled to take an affectionate leave of him. The Senate, on his return to Rome, decreed him a triumph of three days. The people received their General and his victorious army with great acclamation. In the rear of the triumphal proceſſion followed the Roman priſoners, who had been ſold by Hannibal in the ſecond Punic war, as ſlaves, and who had obtained their freedom by the gratitude of the Greeks, for the benefits which they had received from Flaminius.

The Achæans alone are repreſented as having paid one hundred talents for the liberation of twelve hundred of thoſe very priſoners from ſlavery. We may juſtly aſſume that where theſe Greeks participated in thoſe conſiderate and benevolent meaſures of the Roman general, the other cities were not backward in largely aſſiſting in the gratifying ſpectacle which, on

those three days, was presented to the martial and imperial city of Rome, by the reunion with its citizens of the victims of the great Carthaginian.

In our day, under the influences of Christian kindness and a common brotherhood, we may reasonably expect that a like discerning policy in the settlement of the various differences of opinion, and the reconciliation of clashing interests and prejudices, which prevail in some of the States, may result in more strongly cementing the Union of all.

The "truths," so long dormant, whose very existence was questioned, and whose growth was deemed impracticable, have by their own innate virtue and vital power become, at length, not only "self-evident," but already productive of exhaustless good. What Lord Coke said of "Right," in its legal acceptance, may be now said of each right which these truths have established:—"that it was of such high estimation that the law preserveth it from death and destruction; trodden down it may be, but never trodden out."

The earnest and patriotic men of 1776 spake well and truly when they pronounced these "rights" *unalienable*! Trodden down they have been, but never trodden out. They have proved to be like the bag of *mustard seed* sent by Alexander the Great to Darius, in return for his barrel full of *sesame*. According to eastern tradition, the active energy of the former made it as apt "an emblem of the good as the ill." It

indicated the energy and the biting courage of his soldiers: the more they were *pressed* the more fiery were the qualities which the "conflict" produced; whilst the "fesame" indicated the *numbers* whom Alexander vanquished.⁴

These same truths have been characterized as "glittering generalities." Time has shown them to be brilliant realities, pregnant with untold advantage to our own nation; fraught with hope and promise to the multitudinous populations of both worlds, and capable of securing by the one the fulfillment of the other.

The developments which gradually led to a full recognition of these solemn verities, "vindicate the ways of God to man." But, like all precious and eagerly fought-for acquisitions, they have been obtained by courageous and persistent efforts. In the recent struggle, what libations of kindred blood have been made to secure peace with freedom! What wounds and mutilated limbs, and personal sufferings, have resulted from the heroic devotion of a loyal people! What sacrifices of health and wealth to insure victory! These sadden the heart by recollections which also oppress the memory; but they furnish us with the assurance that no similar calamity will again assail our now disenthralled country.

Now, that this advance has taken place in our social system, we can more fully contemplate the causes which occasioned it, and thus we are enabled to trace its origin in the large proprietary class, which con-

trolled the action of the South and guided its movements. Without formal titles of distinction, this class enjoyed all the essentials of a landed aristocracy; they held the intermediate class, known as "the poor whites," in political subjection; and having made labor disgraceful to the white and the only proper employment of the lowest class, the black; the contrast between the higher and this menial condition rendered the degradation of the poor whites a political consequence; because, though nominally the equals of the lordly planters, virtually they were but as serfs, in all political matters.

Class domination governed social intercourse, and class conservatism clung to a system that dreaded the results of ideas, which inculcated the influential operation of those popular elements of power, inherent in the rights that made men equal in the eye of the law; and further, when thus encouraged, was destructive of the tendencies which virtually had their origin in feudalism.

Coleridge is reported to have said that "the free class in a slave State is always, in one sense, the most patriotic class of people in an *empire*; for their patriotism is not simply the patriotism of other people, but an aggregate of the lust of power, and distinction, and supremacy."⁵

What was the object of this free class in the recent rebellion but to build up "an empire," based on the irredeemable slavery of the black race, upon

whose tasked toil it was to subsist? What the tendency of the rule of their chosen chief, but the erection of a military despotism? And what the aim of both, but the threefold "lust" so aptly described by the acute and philosophic Coleridge?

It is said of Julius Cæsar, "that he had frequently in his mouth a verse of Euripides, which expressed the image of his soul, that, if right and justice were ever to be violated, they were to be violated for the sake of reigning. This was the chief end and purpose of his life—the scheme that he had formed from his early youth—so that, as Cato truly declared of him, he came with sobriety and meditation to the subversion of the Republic."⁶

The *coup d'état* that overthrew the French Republic, and founded in its stead the present empire, was the result of a *Napoleonic idea*, suggested by the mind of the great Julius. Had the boasted "chivalry of the South," identical with the dominant class to which I have adverted, and which, at the sacrifice of *right* and *justice*, madly plunged the so-called "Confederate States" into rebellion, succeeded in the attempt, the *form* of a Republican Government, assumed for the occasion, would speedily have been merged in such "an empire" as Coleridge intimated, with that of France, doubtless, as its model, and its ruler an ally. His declared anxiety for the welfare of Mexico, its neighbor, would have as truly sympathized with the *idea* as that on which this new empire was avowedly based!

A few months previous to the suggestion of Cole-ridge, upon which I have commented (January 4, 1833), he made the following remarkable prognostication, which, had its conclusion been equally correct, would have been justly considered an extraordinary prediction. "Naturally," he observed, "one would have thought that there would have been greater sympathy between the northern and north-western States of the American Union, than between England and the southern States. There is ten times as much English blood and spirit in New England as in Virginia, the Carolinas, &c. Nevertheless, such has been the force of the interests of *commerce*, that now, and for some years past, the people of the North hate England with increasing bitterness, while, among those of the South, who are Jacobins, the British connection has become popular."

His conclusion was that the American Union had no centre, and that it was impossible now to make one. "In fact, the Union will be shaken almost to dislocation whenever a very serious question between the States arises."⁷

Time, as we have seen, has tested this very question. That the Union has a "centre," and adequate centripetal and centrifugal forces, has been shown under circumstances of the *most serious* character. It has demonstrated that, like his countrymen in general, the inherent power of the American Republic was by him erroneously estimated.

There exist reasons to show logically, as well as “naturally,” that the cause for this very *sympathy* arose, not only from mere interest, but also from a sentiment which the boasted spirit of chivalry had created, and which the spirit of the times has compulsively assuaged.

It is well known that the much-vaunted *Southern chivalry* had created a sentiment of such conventional force that it governed public opinion, and subjected the local laws to its “higher power.” Its emblems were the *pistol* and the *bowie-knife*! The spirit of chivalry in the “dark ages,” doubtless, did, in very many cases, exert a wholesome restraint. But after the dawn of modern history, a better civilization was introduced, and events have shown that social progress advanced more surely and beneficially where divine and human laws were made obligatory.

“I confess,” said Dr. Arnold of Rugby, “that if “I were called upon to name what spirit of evil pre-“dominantly deserved the name of *Antichrist*, I should “name the SPIRIT OF CHIVALRY—the more detestable “for the very guise of the ‘Archangel ruined,’ which “has made it so seductive to the most generous spirits, “but to me so hateful, because it is in direct opposi-“tion to the impartial justice of the Gospel, and its “comprehensive feeling of equal brotherhood, and “because it so fostered a sense of honor, rather than a “sense of duty.”⁸

The colonial settlements on our Atlantic border

were made by races chiefly of Anglo-Saxon descent. In a general sense, they were lovers of freedom, of distributed power, and conscious of the right; but from bigoted views, political bias, and their mischievously consequent prejudices, they were often forgetful of the claims of "equal brotherhood," and cherished a false sense of honor that, as Arnold further alleged, "was incompatible with the highest virtue of which man is capable, and the last at which he arrives—a sense of justice;" setting up—when the spirit of chivalry, which he often called feudality, prevailed—"personal allegiance to the Chief above allegiance to GOD and LAW!"⁹

Between the southern and eastern colonies on our Atlantic border decidedly marked characteristics existed, resulting from differences in opinion and peculiarities of temperament. It is not my purpose to expatiate upon these distinctions; I can now only notice their existence. Political views on the one side, and hereditary influences on the other, with bigoted opinions and personal considerations on both, often made them forgetful of the claims of "equal brotherhood," and "a sense of justice;" whatever may have been their actual or pretended support at other times of that which each, in fact, deemed "a sense of duty."

These observations are now more directly applied to the former colonies, because of their early and known aristocratic proclivities. Had the schemes of colonization planned in the time of Elizabeth been carried

into effect, they would have become in fact feudal principalities, and the idea have been practically realized which is suggested in the Dedication of the Fairy Queen, wherein Spenser describes Elizabeth, "by the Grace of GOD, *Queen of England, France and Ireland—and Virginia.*"

At that time "Virginia" embraced a region which contained within its limits most of the Southern States, as appears from the grant made to Sir Walter Raleigh, which gave also prerogatives and jurisdiction of a vice-regal character, with an extent of territory almost indefinite.

The ruling classes of England have always sympathized with the descendants of these southern colonists. Both claimed to belong to that "chivalric" order which considered labor the badge "of the lower classes," and both regarded themselves as "fruges consumere nati." With the British government was the feeling of national and commercial rivalry. It had no wish to see "the possible destiny of the United States of America—as a nation of a hundred millions of freemen—stretching from the Atlantic to the Pacific, living under the laws of Alfred, and speaking the language of Shakespeare and Milton," which Coleridge added, is "an august conception!" He asked, "why should we not wish to see it realized? America would then be England viewed through a solar microscope—Great Britain in a state of glorious magnification."¹⁰

The interests of the commercial community of England inclined them, during the recent rebellion, to favor measures destructive of similar American interests—"recte," "aut quocunque modo." These influences, and a desire to see the United States dismembered, conjointly induced an ancient nation, whose boast was that its flag "has braved a thousand years," to grant, on the earliest pretext, belligerent rights to southern rebels, to furnish them with material aid, and so to construe their international laws as to make them instrumental in destroying, first, the commerce of a youthful competitor, and then its strength—its Union. At the same time it pretended to practice good faith, dispense impartial justice, and observe a strict international comity!

In the Stadium, among the Greeks, a *white line* marked out the ground to be run over, on which the competitors in the Isthmian games were to keep their eyes. Those who deviated from the course within this line ran unlawfully, and though they first reached the goal, were therefore not crowned. England has long been running in the contest with America for commercial supremacy on a *line marked out by herself*, and recently, in order to obtain the coveted prize, violated her good faith, sacrificed her "sense of justice," and, instead of fairness, used deception, by *running unlawfully*. In the face of open day she unblushingly pretends to have observed the strict rules of the game, and this, too, in order to avoid *a forfeit*.

Her conduct reminds me of the answer of Diogenes when urged to desist from his labors on account of his age: “*Εἰ δολιχὸν ἔδραμον, πρὸς τῷ τέλει ἔδει με ἀνεῖναι καὶ μὴ μᾶλλον ἐπιτεῖναι;*” If I have run long in the race, will it become me to slacken my pace when come near the end: should I not rather stretch forward? That is as if he had said *κατὰ σκοπὸν, along the line*, and according to the strict rules of the course! ”

Had England been as honest as the old cynic philosopher, she would have avoided the restitution which in time she will be ashamed to withhold, or be compelled of her own accord to make, in order to prevent others from adopting a course fatal to her own interests, on pretexts as flimsy as her present weak endeavor to defend a wrong.

Southey, in his “argument” prefixed to his Poem entitled “The Poet’s Pilgrimage to Waterloo,” contends that “upon the great scale, the human race “from the beginning has been progressive,” and that “never was a victory so important to the best hopes “of human nature” as the battle there “won by “British valor,” which left England “at leisure to “pursue the great objects of bettering her own condition and diffusing the blessings of civilization and “Christianity.”

It has been the misfortune of the government of that country, in the attempt to accomplish these objects, to mingle the one with the other; so that, in diffusing these blessings, the desire to better her

“condition,” seems to have had the controlling influence. At times England appears wholly to have omitted the latter duty, in order to accomplish that which she deemed most profitable for her “condition.” Our civil war has furnished abundant evidence of this strong propensity on her part!

It may be safely, I think, alleged, that more has been accomplished by America, during the past four years, to advance social progress, than has been effected by England during the long interval which has elapsed since her memorable battle was fought. Her foreign policy has, during that period, sought to advance, ostensibly, the blessings of civilization and Christianity; while circumstances have shown that, in the effort, her commerce and love of acquisition have brought, upon the people and lands embraced in her projects, bloodshed, the encouragement of vicious indulgences, and a strong distrust of her desire to better their “condition” by any sacrifices detrimental to her own, without the admixture of sinister means for selfish purposes.

It is scarcely necessary to state the circumstances which justify this view of the improvement she has made of the “leisure” to which Southey adverts. It is sufficient for my purpose to introduce, as an instance, the course she pursued while the United States was engaged in putting down the rebellion against its government—the most formidable attempt of the kind in modern history. Had the

aristocratic and other influential classes in England looked with as much favor upon the much-needed reforms at home—to the claims of the unrepresented portions of her population, who are clamorously demanding to be heard by their representatives in the national councils—and to the redress of the fore evils which press with cruel infliction upon her lowest and most degraded classes, as they did upon the efforts of the English government to aid that rebellion, they could not have failed to have accomplished much for the better condition of England herself, and with much better success than has resulted from British interference with the attempt successfully made by the United States to enforce submission to the supremacy of their government. The principal point in which, in my view, England is distinguished from the United States, is that in England there is among the ruling classes a want, not of kindness towards, but of sympathy with, the laboring classes. Well did Sergeant Talfourd exclaim, just as he fell in death, “That which is wanting to bind together the bursting bond of the different classes of this country, is, not kindness, but sympathy.” It is in this sympathy with the lowest classes of the people that the United States pre-eminently excel.

I submit these remarks in no captious spirit, but as in strong contrast with the “objects and duties” to which Southey refers; and I state with pride and a consciousness of the truth, that our repub-

lic, by its noble and resolute course, has done more for the future of our race and its social progress than has, during the present century, been accomplished by England and France conjointly ; and this through instrumentalities demanding immense sacrifice of life, of treasure and domestic happiness, accompanied with a skill in the direction of public affairs and a devotion to her interests unfurpassed in the history of any other country.

I am not, however, insensible to the true glory and greatness of England. Besides her common law, her language and literature, America has enjoyed the benefits of the examples furnished by Hampden and Sidney, to enlarge and enforce principles of republican and constitutional liberty ; and of Clarkson and Wilberforce, in their philanthropic efforts to “ blot the “ accursed word of slave ”¹²—all with joint claims to

“ The equal honor of enduring fame ! ”

I am not forgetful of the virtues, learning, refinement and piety of multitudes among the people of England. In this same poem, Southey’s encomium upon them is well deserved and just :

“ There, under Freedom’s tutelary wing,
 “ Deliberate courage fears no human foe ;
 “ There, undefiled as in their native spring,
 “ The living waters of Religion flow ;
 “ There, like a beacon, the transmitted light
 “ Conspicuous to all nations burneth bright.”

At the same time we may well claim that *here*, rather than *there*, are realized his other words :

- “ From bodily and mental bondage,” *here*
“ Hath Man his full emancipation gained ;
“ The viewless and illimitable air
“ Is not more free than thought ; all unrestrained
“ Nor pined in want, nor sunk in sensual sloth,”
Here “ may th’ immortal mind attain its growth.”

The political discussions which engaged the attention of the English Colonies a century since, and increased in intensity until the separation from the mother country was effected, seem to have impressed the minds of thoughtful men in England with the existence of the peculiar traits of American character. The lectures delivered by Dr. Priestley, during the last half of the preceding century, on “ History and General Policy,” first appeared from the press in 1788, when America had taken her position among the nations of the earth. In his forty-third lecture, delivered many years previously, he expressed the opinion that, in the monarchical States of Europe, it was “ highly improbable that any “ form of properly equal government should be “ established for many ages ;” but that “ on the “ contrary, in North America there seems to be no “ prospect of the peaceable establishment of any form “ of government, besides one in which the rights of “ all shall be equal.”

In the preceding pages the progress of *American ideas* has been shown, and also that their full recognition was accomplished by the results of the recent Rebellion.

In bringing to a close the consideration of the events to which I referred in the opening of this address, and which have taken a wider range than I designed, but which the nature of the subject demands, we arrive at the conclusion of the correctness of that leading truth which Niebuhr, one of the greatest of modern historians, thus philosophically states: "As in organic beings the most perfect life is that which animates the greatest variety of numbers; so among States, that is the most perfect in which a number of institutions, originally distinct, being organized, each after its kind, into centres of national life, form a complete whole." This leading principle in his science is fully exemplified in the formation of the American Republic, with its Federal Government. The idea is embodied in our national motto, "E Pluribus Unum."

In view of these incomparable results in our past history, and with these glorious prospects before us, I now pass to the special consideration of the influence of Libraries upon our future social progress, in order to present to you the design of "The Historical Museum," which is intended to be erected in the Central Park in this city, under the auspices of this Society, pursuant to an Act of the Legislature of the State, under circumstances so favorable, and with such liberal and extensive appliances, as to promise great and lasting benefits to the social interests not only of our City and State, but of the United States in general.

The act referred to is entitled "An Act to Improve the Central Park in the City of New York," was passed on the 25th of March, 1862, submitted to the Commissioners thereof on the 10th of April following, and is here introduced in order that the nature of the "appropriation" to this Society, with its privileges, qualifications and provisions, may appear in the very words employed for the purpose:

The People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

§ 1. The Commissioners of the Central Park in the city of New York, are hereby authorized to set apart and appropriate to the New York Historical Society, the building within said Park heretofore known as the New York State Arsenal, together with such grounds adjoining the same as the said Commissioners may determine to be necessary and proper for the purpose of establishing and maintaining therein by the said society, a museum of antiquities and science, and a gallery of art.

§ 2. The expense of arranging and fitting up of the said arsenal building for the use and purpose aforesaid shall be borne by the said New York Historical Society, and the said society shall have the right, at its own expense, to add to, enlarge, or if need be, to take down the present building, and erect another on the grounds so set apart and appropriated; the plan of such addition, or new building, having been first submitted to, and approved by the Commissioners of the said Park.

§ 3. The museum and gallery contemplated in the first section of this act, when so established, shall be accessible to the

public under proper regulations, to be adopted by the said society, approved by the said Commissioners, and not inconsistent with the proper administration and management of the said Park.

§ 4. The evidence of setting apart and appropriation of the said arsenal building and grounds within the said Park, to the said New York Historical Society, for the purpose aforesaid, shall be a resolution to that effect, adopted by the Board of said Commissioners, duly acknowledged by its President, and recorded in the office of the Register of the city and county of New York.

§ 5. If the said New York Historical Society shall so establish their said museum of antiquities and science, and gallery of art, then, so long as they shall continue there to maintain the same, they shall occupy and enjoy the said building and grounds thus set apart and appropriated to them for the purpose aforesaid, free from any rent, assessment, or charge whatever therefor, and if the said society shall at any time hereafter, for any cause, discontinue their said museum of antiquities and science, and gallery of art, in the said arsenal building, or on the said grounds, then the said arsenal building, and any building whatever erected under the provisions of this act, and the said grounds before set apart and appropriated, shall revert to the said Central Park for the general purposes thereof; but the said society shall in such case be permitted to remove therefrom the said museum of antiquities and science, and gallery of art, and all its other property.

§ 6. The Legislature may at any time alter, repeal, or amend this act.

§ 7. This act shall take effect immediately.

The above enactments furnish gratifying evidence

of the interest manifested by the Representatives of the People of this State in the progress and usefulness of our Society, and the endeavour to accomplish the important ends which they have in view. The same appreciative estimate of the general design of this institution had been shown on previous occasions, when application was made for legislative assistance, either for its extrication from a burthenome debt or for more available efforts to enable it to gather and preserve materials for historic research and illustration, as also to rescue from oblivion and the "tooth of Time" the perishable records of our National, State and municipal history.

It will be noticed that the Act in question designates the location of The Historical Museum in the Central Park, and contemplates the setting apart by the Commissioners of adequate grounds for its purposes. It makes it incumbent upon the Society to obtain the approval by the Commissioners of the plan of the proposed building; but such appropriation and such approval impose duties as obligatory upon the Commissioners for their due and prompt performance, as are the obligations resting upon the Society by the precautionary measures which the Legislature has taken in regard to the proper discharge of all the conditions imposed on them.

This Act was communicated, as has been stated, to the Commissioners on the 10th of April, 1862, and the Resolution which the Legislature required the

Commissioners to execute and record, as evidence of the authorized appropriation by them of grounds adequate for the purposes of the Society, was executed on the 3d of October, 1865, and recorded in the Register's office in this city on the 16th of the same month—but a little over a month since.

To their Executive Committee the Society delegated the power to appoint a Building Committee, whose duty it is to procure and lay before the Commissioners the required plan of the building to be erected on the site above designated, or of the alteration of the "Arsenal Building;" either of which the act permits. As it was deemed expedient, however, soon after the act was obtained, to ascertain the cost, in either contingency, upon the adoption by the Commissioners of a plan, before soliciting the necessary subscriptions; a General Chairman and the fifteen subcommittees were appointed to collect the same, which were to be paid over to the Treasurer of the Society; and they were instructed not to proceed until such plan was approved and estimates obtained.

For myself, as such General Chairman, I assert, and with a full conviction of the correctness of the assertion, that, had the subscription-committees been permitted during the year 1864 to proceed with the discharge of the duties assigned them, such was the prosperity at that period existing in this city, notwithstanding the war then raging, that the adequate sum could have been collected, and the building commenced.

But, now that the grant of the land is obtained, in anticipation of the action of committees, who, it is to be hoped, will soon be in a position to enter upon the discharge of their important duties, by the early action of the Commissioners, I have selected the subject, to which I now invite your further attention, as one in connection therewith, and also as one of the greatest importance to the future operations and usefulness of this Society. This enables me practically to present to you and the friends of this institution the results of similar efforts in times anterior to as well as during the present age, in order to stimulate the liberality of those who are interested in these departments of science, literature and the arts, to secure the benefits which are thus to be placed within the reach of the public at large.

No one will question the desirableness of establishing in every community depositories of the treasures of literature, science and the arts, and more especially in concentrating these in a city like ours, which is the commercial emporium of the New World. With the degree of culture which the members of an association like this are presumed to possess, they cannot but be deeply impressed with the necessity of establishing such depositories for the intellectual and social improvement of the people.

But in this, as in all subjects, there are special aspects, which present themselves only after diligent

search and investigation, and which are yet too important to be overlooked.

By libraries, in this address, are to be understood depositories of literature, science and art ; in short, of all the products of intellect and imagination which can be brought together for the pleasure and instruction of man. In designating the intended building to be erected in the Central Park as "THE HISTORICAL "MUSEUM," I but follow the authority of the best lexicographers, who define a museum as a repository of natural, scientific and literary curiosities : a place for the muses or for study ; and this description is the same as that comprehended in the Greek word from which it is derived. In considering the relation of these to *social progress*, the most satisfactory method, and the one most in harmony with the character of this Society, is undoubtedly the *historical method*. This, then, is the method which, in the treatment of this subject, I shall adopt.

It would be impracticable for me, on this occasion, to enter upon the details connected with American libraries, nor, indeed, is it necessary ; for these have been to a great degree investigated in the several able works published on this subject.

In these publications the reading public will find full and satisfactory details given in a clear and explanatory manner. The increasing number of these libraries furnish facts full of interest to us, and to the generations to succeed us, and bear testimony to the

beneficial results which cannot fail to flow from this widely-spreading stream, which is to bless with its presence every portion of our country.

As to our own collections in this Library in which we are assembled, rich in all the materials of American history, and so often described and so highly appreciated by students of history, it would on this occasion be a work of supererogation for me to attempt to speak in a manner corresponding with their value and importance. Books, manuscripts, maps and charts, as well as the treasures of antiquity, of science and of art, in each and all the departments of our varied collections, the gradual accumulations of historic wealth, have been and are pouring in on us, and furnish demonstrative proof of the incapacity of this edifice for their proper reception and arrangement.

In less than the lapse of a decade the present building, which, at its dedication, was deemed ample for its design, is furnishing evidence of the necessity of the new structure which it is our intention to erect in the Central Park, and which the present and prospective growth of this association imperatively calls for.

This hall and the galleries above will be required for the purposes to which they are now applied, with the exception of the antiquities, the Audubon drawings and collection of paintings, which can be much more appropriately arranged in the Historical Museum when that is made ready for their reception. Here is the proper place to keep the books, manu-

scripts and charts which relate to American history, and those especially which relate to our city and State. To the student in this field of historical research, these latter collections furnish what is descriptively known as a "*Working Library*." The museum, in its amplitude, will embrace a wider and more extensive field, which requires in comparison accommodations on a *colossal scale*.

The spirit of the age commands us to *march forward*. Advance *we must!* we *cannot remain still!* That is stagnation—and stagnation is death. Let us bear in mind the motto of our great State—"Excel-
"sior." To keep pace with this onward march we must rise *higher* and for *loftier* ends.

This city is exposed to the vices of the great cities abroad which immigration introduces. To counteract the evils, which irreligion, folly and wickedness have thus transplanted, it becomes our duty to control their effects, and then eradicate them, by being prepared to stem this flood and make it subservient to the purposes which minister to social progress. These combined results of such paramount influence and interest in their wide and beneficial operation have led me to select the subject which I am now to submit for your special consideration, in the hope that it will not only greatly promote the future welfare of our Society, but have a benign effect upon the present generation and upon the generations to succeed it.

The fact of social progress carried on by inevitable laws, and constituting God's plan in history, may be said to be a modern discovery. It is even now very imperfectly understood. Vico¹³ was the first who attempted to elaborate a science of this progress, and has left some most valuable materials for those who succeed him in the same field. Fichte,¹⁴ Schelling¹⁵ and Hegel,¹⁶ have constructed stupendous systems of thought, which are likely to have little permanent influence upon speculations on this subject. The most masterly attempt, so far, and that which is at present most influential, is the materialistic system of August Comte.¹⁷ While we may not accept the theories of any of these profound thinkers as to the laws by which social progress is governed, they clearly establish the fact of such progress, and show that it comes within the domain of fixed and definite law. The thought of our time is still striving to give scientific precision to this fact, which is obscurely hinted at even by the ancient poets, who sang of the progress of the world to a returning golden age. Tennyson has given expression to this in those remarkable lines :

“ I doubt not through the ages an increasing purpose runs,

“ And the thoughts of men are widened in the process of the suns.”

Without attempting to analyze the admitted facts of this progress, it is only necessary to apprehend some of the more prominent forces, by which it is impelled, in order to see the relation to them of Litera-

ture, Science and Art. The most prominent of these forces are: 1st. The intellectual and moral impulse given to the world by works of genius; 2d. The movement of *scientific discovery* resulting from the accumulation of *scientific facts*; 3d. The regulating and elevating influence of *Divine Revelation*. These are the principal forces by which social progress is carried on. The point which we are to consider, is the bearing upon these forces of the accumulation, in society, of literary, scientific, moral and religious influences, as contained especially in books.

These forces have necessarily been present whenever there has been any development of civilization; and whenever there has been any such development, we find also the accumulation of such intellectual treasures as were accessible. I shall in the first place endeavor to give prominence to this fact, by briefly tracing the parallel histories of Libraries and Civilization.

Perhaps the most ancient library of which we have any notice, is found in connection with one of the most ancient civilizations of the world. Ofymandyas, one of the early kings of Egypt, made a collection of books in a room in his palace. Over the entrance was inscribed: ΨΥΧΗΣ ΊΑΤΡΕΙΟΝ—"The Dispensary of the "Soul." Such is the account given by Diodorus.¹⁸ Wilkinson¹⁹ and Champollion²⁰ both agree that the palace referred to by Diodorus still remains in the ruins known as the "Memnonium," or "Ramefium."

Among the Hebrews, two of the great forces of civilization were constantly present and active: works of genius and a divine revelation. These were brought into contact at all times with the life of the nation, by the reading of the Sacred Books in the hearing of the people. The collection of these books formed, of course, the national library of the Jews. But they had also collections of other books, especially those relating to the history of the nation. Judas Maccabeus²¹ caused extracts to be made from those contained in the library of Nehemiah; and the reason for the making of these extracts is expressly said to be the multitude of books. One of the towns taken by the Israelites in their conquest of Canaan was Kirjath-sepher; or, as the words mean, "City of Books." The Targum calls the place Kirjath-arche, or the "City of Archives." This is undoubtedly the same alluded to afterwards as Kirjath-fanah,²² which, in Arabic and Phœnician, means "City of Law." Joshua called the town Debir,²³ meaning a word or oracle. It is not very creditable to our modern civilization that there is now no city whose literary treasures are so conspicuous as to entitle it to the name of the *City of Letters*, or the *City of Books*. The effect of this literature, especially the sacred part of it, was to develop an intensely strong national and monotheistic feeling among the Jews; and it is this peculiar development of their civilization which has made them so influential an element in the history of the world.

Recent discoveries are rendering more clear and precise the shadowy outlines of the stupendous monarchies of the Babylonian, Assyrian and Chaldean kings. Certain it is that in the remote period in which they existed, they occupied almost the entire field of history. As might be expected, therefore, we find traces of enormous collections of records or books. In the palace of Nineveh a royal library, consisting of clay-tablets, has been found. About twenty thousand of these have been placed in the British Museum. M. Jules Oppert believes these to have been prepared by command of Sardanapalus V. (about B. C. 650). He quotes this inscription: "Palace of Sardanapalus, king of the world; king of Assyria, to whom the god Nebo and the goddess Ourmit have given ears to hear and eyes to see what is the foundation of Government. They have revealed to the kings, my predecessors, this cuneiform writing. The manifestation of the god Nebo—of the god of supreme intellect—I have written it up on tablets—I have signed it—I have put it in order—I have placed it in the midst of my palace for the instruction of my subjects."²⁴

No nation has exercised a more powerful influence upon the intellectual progress of the world than the Greek; and there are most conclusive indications that the intellectual treasures of that people were preserved from age to age with the greatest care. Of the indebtedness of Homer to the rich stores of knowledge

which before his time had been accumulated, I shall have, in another connection, occasion to speak. It is stated on the authority of Aulus Gellius that Pisistratus, the tyrant, established a public library in Athens, in which he deposited, after great difficulty and expense in securing them, the works of Homer. It is stated, however, by Strabo that Aristotle was the first to establish a library, and that he suggested to the Ptolemies the formation of the renowned collection at Alexandria. According to this account, Aristotle bequeathed his library to Theophrastus, and Theophrastus to Neleus. By him it was concealed from the kings of Pergamus in a cave, and after various vicissitudes was taken by Sylla and carried to Rome.²⁵

There is another account, however, which renders it probable that a part of this library, and perhaps the most valuable portion of it, was long before bought by Ptolemy Philadelphus and transferred to Alexandria.²⁶

It is through this wonderful collection at Alexandria, chiefly, that the products of the Greek mind have entered into the civilization of the modern world. This splendid library is said to have been founded about B. C. 290, by Ptolemy Soter.²⁷ It was greatly increased by Ptolemy Philadelphus and Ptolemy Euergetes. Its treasures were first deposited in a quarter of the city called Bruchion, where there were at last collected about four hundred thousand volumes. After that, all additions were

placed in the temple of Serapis, and the number of volumes here finally reached three hundred thousand. In the first Alexandrian war the part in the Bruchion was accidentally destroyed by fire.

The library in the temple of Serapis, however, remained, and subsequently received the addition of the Permagean library, consisting of two hundred thousand volumes, presented by Mark Antony to Cleopatra.

It was finally destroyed by the Saracens, under the order of the Caliph Omar, in 642 of the Christian era.

It is scarcely possible to exaggerate the indebtedness of the world to this library of Alexandria. It was the great storehouse of learning for nearly a thousand years. It bore upon its shelves all the marvellous intellectual wealth of Greece. The MSS. of Grecian literature, now deposited in the libraries of Europe, and from which our editions of the Grecian classics are derived, are to be traced, for the most part, through a greater or less number of transcriptions, to their authors, through the library of Alexandria. Its powerful influence was constantly felt in the Roman republic and empire, to which it imparted the products of the Greek mind. We hear to-day, in the Roman civilization, the voice of literature and science and art, as well as the clash of arms, because the library of Alexandria existed. For more than nine centuries, Alexandria was the venerable mother of the intellectual world.

A taste for letters having been developed among the *Romans*, chiefly through the influence of the Alexandrian library, we should expect them soon to have libraries of their own. But although there were some private libraries, there seems to have been no public one, until the time of Julius Cæsar. That extraordinary man, so wonderfully in advance of his age, saw clearly the necessity of intellectual culture in the new social and political system which he was about to inaugurate. He committed to Varro the task of collecting a Roman library on a magnificent scale. This noble design was partially frustrated by the assassination of Cæsar; but there are indications that the work was, at least, commenced by Varro. The undertaking thus conceived by Julius Cæsar was reserved for Augustus to complete.

The elder Pliny ascribes the honor of the suggestion of public libraries under the Empire to Asinius Pollio, who established one on the Aventine Hill. Augustus erected two public libraries—the Octavian and the Palatine. Tiberius and Vespasian each founded a library, and Domitian restored, as far as possible, the libraries which had been destroyed in the reign of Nero. The most splendid library, however, in Rome was that founded by the Emperor Ulpian Trajanus, and called the Ulpian library. It was erected in Trajan's forum; but its treasures were afterwards removed to the Baths of Diocletian, the ruins of which still form one of the great attractions in the imperial city.

These magnificent collections, in which the wealth of Greek and Roman literature was mingled, were destroyed by fire, or smitten by lightning; and after upholding and adorning the mighty civilization which had overspread the world, were scattered by the Barbarians, who trampled the Empire itself into the dust. The few fragments which floated over the universal chaos into which society was resolved, found their way at last into the secluded retreats of monasteries, and, under the protection of the Church, waited for the revival of learning, when they entered with living power into the vast developments of modern civilization.

It has been a question whether literature is really indebted to monastic institutions, and whether the monks were not in truth its worst enemies. The manner in which this discussion has been carried on seems to proceed upon the supposition that all monastic institutions must have pursued the same policy, and all monks been animated by the same spirit. The fact evidently is, that there was a vast difference among them. In some monasteries there was a systematic destruction of the choicest treasures of antiquity, while in others they were preserved with the most religious care. But the point which it is important for us to consider is, that in those cases in which this care was exercised, the incalculable benefit was conferred upon the world of the preservation of classic literature. All monastic institutions, it must be also remembered,

were interested in the transcription and preservation of the Scriptures and the writings of the Christian Fathers.

At the same time, the continuance of the Eastern Empire until the fifteenth century secured the protection of Greek learning. For many years before the fall of Constantinople and the overthrow of the Eastern Empire, learned men left the East, with their rich stores of classic lore, and emigrated to southern and western Europe. There they became the patrons of learning—reviving the taste for Greek literature, which had become almost extinct; gaining access themselves (many of them for the first time) to the products of the Latin mind; encouraging the collection and transcription of manuscripts, and contributing powerfully to the great revival of Letters which speedily followed.²⁸

The Monastery of Monte-Cassino, which still exists, with its noble patrimony, in southern Italy (excepted, as a homage to its venerable history, from the operation of the act of the Government of Victor Emanuel, which is leading to the extinction of monasteries), is one of the most conspicuous examples of the services rendered to learning by these institutions. From this ancient and renowned seat of learning originated similar communities, which spread themselves over Europe, and especially in the British Isles. Among these latter were the monasteries of Yarrow, Wearmouth, Bury St. Edmunds, Croyland, Whitby,

Reading, and St. Albans—in all of which books were most carefully preserved and transcribed.²⁹

The discovery of printing opened a new era in the history of libraries and their connection with social progress. Books became excessively multiplied, and as they were thus brought in contact with a greater number of minds, the consequence was an immense increase in the number of authors. Modern libraries are, therefore, immeasurably more extensive than those of antiquity or the Middle Ages. The number of volumes may not indeed be so much greater; but that arises from the fact that a printed volume contains vastly more than a volume or roll of MS.

As we have in all previous history found the growth of libraries always in the line of advancing civilization, so in our own day we find them present and steadily increasing at all the great centres of influence and power.

Italy, which has for more than two thousand years played so prominent a part in history, is peculiarly rich in libraries. They are, however, greatly deficient in modern works, except such as relate to the theology of the Roman Catholic Church. I can only allude to some of the more prominent among them. In Rome there are several remarkable libraries besides the Vatican. The Barberini Collection has about 40,000 printed volumes and 7,000 MSS. The Casanata Library, named from its donor, Cardinal Casanate, is in the Dominican Convent in the Piazza della Mi-

nerva, and has more than 200,000 volumes. The Angelica Library contains more than 84,000 volumes and about 4,000 MSS. The Alexandrine Library contains about 80,000 volumes and 3,000 MSS. The Corfini Library has about 60,000 volumes, 3,000 MSS., and 60,000 engravings. The Franciscan Library has between 40,000 and 50,000 volumes. The Lancifiana Library has from 30,000 to 40,000. The Library of the Roman College is said to contain 70,000 volumes. The Library of the Oratory is chiefly remarkable for its MSS.

The Ambrosian Library at Milan, which was founded by Cardinal Federigo Borromeo, nephew of St. Charles Borromeo, possesses about 80,000 printed volumes and 5,500 MSS. The Brera Library contains about 125,000 volumes and 1,000 MSS.

The Library of Bologna is especially rich in Oriental MSS. There are 550 of Arabic alone. It contains about 105,000 volumes and 6,000 MSS. The celebrated Mezzofanti was for a long time its librarian.

The principal libraries in Florence are the Laurentian, the Magliabechiana, the Marucelliana, the Riccardiana, and the Library of the Belle Arti. The Mediceo Laurentian, which was founded by Cosmo de Medici, is a splendid collection of MSS., of which there are about 7,000, and of these many are of great rarity and value. Magliabechi, from whom the Magliabechiana is named, was a servant to a dealer in

vegetables, but raised himself to the honorable position of librarian to the Grand Duke of Tuscany. It contains about 140,000 printed books and 10,000 MSS. The Marucelliana contains 33,435 volumes and 1,375 MSS. The Ricardiana has about 11,000 volumes.

There are four public libraries in Naples. The Royal Library contains about 200,000 volumes and 4,000 MSS. The University possesses 25,000. The Convent of St. Philip Neri has about 18,000. The Brancacciana contains 76,000 volumes and about 1,000 MSS.

The libraries of Germany are of great extent and immense value. It is impossible at this time to do more than to glance at some of the most extensive and useful.

The Imperial Library of Vienna was founded in 1440, by the Emperor Frederic III. It consists of more than 365,000 volumes and 20,000 MSS. The University Library of Vienna ranks next to the Imperial Library. In 1848 it contained more than 120,000. The Royal Library of Munich is the largest in Germany, containing between 400,000 and 500,000 volumes and 22,000 MSS. The King of Saxony's Public Library at Dresden contains 305,000 volumes and 2,800 MSS. The Library of Göttingen contains 360,000 volumes and 3,000 MSS. The Royal Library at Berlin contains nearly 500,000 volumes and 10,000 MSS.

France is very liberally supplied with libraries. Among the most considerable of the provincial libraries are those of Strasbourg with 180,000 books, Lyons with 120,000, Rouen with 110,000, Troyes with 100,000, Aix 95,000, Grenoble and Befançon each about 80,000, Avignon with 60,000, Versailles with 56,000, Amiens with 53,000, Marseilles with 57,000, Toulouse, Dijon and Nîmes each about 50,000, Nantes with 45,000, Caen with 40,000, Arras, Douay, Chaumont, Colmar, Cambrai, Orleans, Rheims, Soissons, Nancy, Beaune and Montpellier each from 30,000 to 35,000. Those of the capital, besides the Bibliothèque Impériale, are the Mazarine with 132,000 books and 3,000 MSS., the Library of the Arsenal with 202,000 books and 6,000 MSS., the Library of St. Geneviève with 180,000 books and 3,500 MSS., the City Library with 55,000 volumes, the Library of the Luxembourg with 40,000 volumes, the Library of the Sorbonne with 40,000 volumes and 1,000 MSS., and the Library of the Institute with about 80,000 volumes.

But the most splendid library in France, and in the world, is the Bibliothèque Impériale, in Paris. It was founded by King John, who possessed only from ten to twenty volumes, but was increased to 900 by Charles V. The collection was afterwards scattered and lost. Louis XI., in the latter part of the fifteenth century, laid again the foundation of this library. Great additions were made by Francis I. Subsequent

monarchs enriched the collection, and scholars added to it their private stores. At the close of the seventeenth century it numbered 50,000 printed books and 15,000 MSS. In 1784 it had increased to nearly 200,000 volumes. This increase was checked for a time by the Revolution; but, in 1797, an addition of 500 MSS. from the Vatican was made, including the inestimable Codex Vaticanus. In 1858 the library had increased to the prodigious number of 860,000 printed volumes, 86,000 volumes of MSS., 300,000 charts and deeds, 1,390,000 prints, and a most perfect collection of maps, charts, &c. It is accessible to all, and is frequented daily by from 300 to 400 readers. It is the glory of France to have accumulated the largest and most valuable library in the world.

In the British Isles there are many libraries of very great value, of which a brief notice will be given.

The Library of the Royal Society was founded in 1667, by the noble gift which John Evelyn induced Henry Howard, afterwards Duke of Norfolk, to make to the Society. It contains about 41,000 volumes, and is peculiarly rich in works upon mathematics and the physical sciences.

Nearly all the cathedrals of England have libraries of greater or less value, of which that of Durham, enriched by the benefactions of Dean Sudbury and Bishop Cofin, is perhaps the most important. The library founded by Archbishop Bancroft, in the reign of James I., and which was placed, until recently, in

Lambeth Palace, now occupies a noble hall built by Archbishop Juxon. This library contains about 25,000 MSS., which are divided into seven sets, distinguished as Codices, Lambethiani, Whartoniani, Carewani, Tenisoniani, Gibsoniani, Miscellanei and Suttonniani.

The Bodleian Library was founded by Sir Thomas Bodley in the reign of Elizabeth. It has been increased by numerous and princely benefactions, especially by Sir Robert Cotton; Sir Henry Seville; Archbishop Laud; John Selden; Sir Kenelm Digby; Thomas, Lord Fairfax; Dr. Thomas Barlow, Bishop of Lincoln; Richard Gough; Francis Douce, and Robert Macon. It is estimated to contain upwards of 256,000 volumes of printed books, and about 22,000 volumes MSS. It is particularly rich in Oriental MSS.

The British Museum, which takes the precedence of all libraries in the British Empire, may be said to have been formed by the union of four libraries: the Royal, the Cottonian, the Harleian and the Sloanian. The Royal Library dates back to the time of Henry VII. It was increased by the collections of Cranmer and Casaubon. Edward VI. added to it the important MSS. of Martin Bucer. The rich collection of the MSS. belonging to the Earl of Arundel was also added. George II. conveyed the library to the British Museum. The Cottonian Library was founded by Sir Robert Bruce Cotton, who collected MSS.

illustrating the early history of England. His son, Sir Thomas Cotton, and his grandson, Sir John Cotton, added greatly to the collection. In 1700 this library became the property of the nation, by act of Parliament, and was opened for public use. The Sloanian Library was founded by Sir Hans Sloan. At his death he bequeathed it to the British nation, on condition that £20,000 be paid to his executors—a sum less than one fourth of the value of the collection. In 1753 Parliament came into possession of this noble library, and also of the Harleian MSS. The Cottonian Library was added, and the Montagu House purchased for their reception. In 1759 the Royal Library was added by George II. Since that time the additions to this splendid foundation have been enormous. The buildings alone, since 1823, have cost nearly £700,000, and the whole expenditure has been upwards of £1,100,000. The books occupy more than forty miles of shelves.

The libraries of Scotland, Ireland, Spain, Portugal, Switzerland, Holland, Belgium, Bohemia, Hungary, Poland, Russia and Turkey are, in many instances, extensive and valuable, but it is impracticable, at present, to give any detailed notice of them.³⁰

In reviewing these enormous collections of books and MSS. the reflection may occur to some minds that vastly the greater proportion of them are utterly useless, and that there is no adequate reason for their accumulation and preservation. But there could be

no greater mistake than such an estimate as this. No one can tell what value may finally come to be attached to that which is apparently the most insignificant book or MS. A very singular and interesting illustration of this is furnished by the history of libraries. This illustration is found in the fact of the preservation for several centuries in one of the libraries of Rome of the Report of Pontius Pilate of the crucifixion of our Saviour. That such was the fact there can be no reasonable doubt, from the following considerations: in the first place, Pilate was required by law to report all his official acts to the emperor, and that he did so in this particular case cannot be questioned. That this Report was deposited in the public archives, would be also unquestionable, even if no positive evidence existed that such was the case. Such a report would undoubtedly be deposited in the library of the house of Tiberius, which was in existence, with that of Trajan, in the Baths of Diocletian, early in the fourth century, as we learn from the incidental testimony of Vopiscus. The only great fires by which these records could have been endangered were in the reigns of Nero and Titus. But after these fires it is certain, from the testimony of Suetonius, that the Commentaries and Acts of Tiberius Cæsar existed. From that time no cause likely to have occasioned their destruction is known to have occurred until the incursions of the Barbarians. These records were open to public examination, and

were appealed to by the early Christians as furnishing the evidence of the truth of their statements as to the circumstances of the crucifixion of CHRIST. At the very time when we know that the Acts of Tiberius were in existence, and when beyond a question the reports sent to him from the governors of the provinces were in existence also, we find this statement in the first Apology of Justin Martyr presented to Antoninus Pius and the senate of Rome about the year A. D. 140. "That these things" (referring to the crucifixion) "were so done, you may know from the "Acts made in the time of Pontius Pilate."³¹ Afterwards, having mentioned some of our Lord's miracles, he adds, "and that these things were done by "Him, you may know from the Acts made in the "time of Pontius Pilate."³² Tertullian, in his Apology, about the year A. D. 200, appeals also to these records as existing and well known in his time. "Of all these things," he says, "relating to Christ, "Pilate, in his conscience a Christian, sent an account "to Tiberius, then emperor."³³ In another place, speaking of the darkness of the sky at the crucifixion, he says, "you have in your archives the relation of "that phenomenon!"³⁴

In the sixteenth chapter of "The Decline and Fall "of the Roman Empire," Gibbon questions the testimony of Tertullian as to this Report of Pontius Pilate. His language is—"We are required to believe that Pontius Pilate informed the emperor of

“the unjust sentence of death which he had pronounced against an innocent, and, as it appeared, a divine Person, and that without acquiring the merit he exposed himself to the claims of martyrdom.”

The simple point to be established is this, that such a report from Pontius Pilate was in existence in the Roman archives in the time of Tertullian, or about two hundred years after the birth of Christ. The first thing to be considered is the fact that the governors of the provinces reported their official acts to the government at Rome. This is evident from Pliny's letters to Trajan, and from Philo's statement that the Acts or Memoirs of Alexandria were sent to Caligula.³⁵ The circumstances of Pilate's course were such as to render it more than ordinarily necessary that such a report should be made. His hesitation in passing sentence upon Jesus was most likely to give an occasion to the Jews of criticism and complaint. Some explanation would therefore be required from Pilate, who could give no better justification of his course than his estimate of the character of Jesus, the wonderful phenomena of the crucifixion, and the fact that he condemned him to be crucified, only because he was unable to resist the demands of the Jews. The circumstances of the case, therefore, would render it in the highest degree probable, independently of any other consideration, that a report on this subject was sent by Pilate to Tiberius.

When received, this report would, of course, be

deposited among the Commentaries and Acts of Tiberius. These documents, under the name of the Library of the House of Tiberius, seem, from the testimony of Suetonius, to have been first deposited in the Apollineum.³⁶ In the time of Aulus Gellius, a contemporary of Justin Martyr, they were in the Temple of Trajan.³⁷ Vopiscus, early in the fourth century, states that he made use of books from the Library of the House of Tiberius, which, in his time, was in the Baths of Diocletian.³⁸ It is certain, therefore, that the library in which this Report would really have been deposited, and of which it would form a part, was in existence in the time of Justin Martyr and of Tertullian, and until the fourth century.

The next point to be considered, is that the testimony of Justin Martyr and Tertullian is not to be discredited by the statements by which it is accompanied, or by the additions to the story which were subsequently made, or by the pretended acts of Pilate, which are extant at the present day. Tertullian states that Tiberius, on the receipt of the account of our Saviour's death, proposed to the Senate that he should be placed among the gods.³⁹ Whether this is true or not, it does not affect the credibility of the testimony under consideration. In the case of this statement as to the proposal of Tiberius, Tertullian may or may not be speaking of something within his own knowledge. In the case of the Report of Pilate, he speaks as if of his own knowledge of a then existing fact.

The account, as we have it in Justin Martyr and Tertullian, is amplified with the addition, doubtless, of some incorrect statements, by Eusebius,⁴⁰ Chrysostom,⁴¹ Orosius,⁴² Zonares,⁴³ and Nichephorus;⁴⁴ but these additions, even if incorrect, do not affect the credibility of the original witnesses; neither is their credibility affected, or the statements which they make rendered, in any degree, less probable by the various documents purporting to be "Acts of Pilate" which subsequently appeared. Some of these are now extant, having been collected by Fabricius and Tischendorf. The fact of these forgeries rather indicates the existence of a true original, upon the credit of which they obtained circulation.

But whatever opinion may be entertained as to the trustworthiness of Justin Martyr and Tertullian, it is to be remembered that each presented to the Roman Government a vindication of the Christian faith, and in this vindication asserts, as a fact, than which nothing could have been more easily disproved, if it were not true, that Pilate made a report of the crucifixion of Jesus to Tiberius, and that this report was in the archives of the State. It is incredible that such a statement would have been hazarded, under such circumstances, unless it had been known to be true.

It is a significant fact that Tacitus connects the name of Christ with that of Pontius Pilate.⁴⁵ This is referred to by Frederic von Schlegel, who receives the statement of Tertullian as true.⁴⁶

Now, since Pontius Pilate must have made such a report to Tiberius, since the library in which it would most naturally have been deposited was in existence in the fourth century, since the Commentaries and Acts of Tiberius were in existence in the time of Domitian, in the latter part of the first century, and no cause adequate to their destruction is known to have occurred from that time until the inroads of the Barbarians, and since this report is appealed to by Justin Martyr about A. D. 140, and by Tertullian about A. D. 200, each in an address to the very persons in whose custody such a record, if there were one, would be kept, the fact of its existence is beyond reasonable dispute, and furnishes a most interesting and conclusive proof of the important services which the collection and preservation of public records have rendered to the world.

Works of genius have been referred to as constituting one of the great moving forces in human progress. A common idea in regard to genius is that it is an original power, to a great extent independent of the intellectual stores which have previously been accumulated. A moment's consideration of those great works of genius, which have commanded the admiration and elevated the character of the world, will satisfy us of the high degree in which they are dependent upon the whole previous intellectual development of the race.

If we go far back in the history of the world, to the

time when Homer sang his immortal Epic, in the early morning of Grecian poetry, philosophy and art, we shall find that the materials of this wonderful work are not newly created. They exist in the thought and life of the previous ages, and Homer has only transfused them with the vital power of his immortal genius, and thus made them a living energy for all coming time. Mr. Gladstone⁴⁷ has traced, with wonderful analytic power, the development, from the great primeval revelation, of the social, philosophical and religious systems of the Homeric age. The results of this development Homer must have had at his command; and the perfect familiarity with them, by which he was enabled to enter into the advancing thought of his age, was the condition upon which he obtained his overmastering influence and his immortal fame.

Take the case of Dante, whose *Divina Commedia* marks the resurrection-morning of Italian and, indeed, of European literature. There is no isolation on his part from the great past. On the contrary, it is only because he gathered it up in all its vast details into himself, that he has been able so marvelously to enrich the world. The very fact that Virgil appears as his guide through the invisible world, is a significant indication of the links which bind him to the realm of letters in the Roman and the Grecian ages; while the ecclesiastical learning, which is apparent on every page, and the whole metaphysical system of mediæval

philosophy, which he has condensed in his extraordinary poem, show that he followed the thread of thought from ancient down to modern times.

Turn your thoughts now to Shakespeare! Here you would expect, perhaps, to find almost an intellectual creation *ex nihilo*, an original force asserting itself in entire independence of previous thought. But an examination of his marvelous works, which have exercised such a stupendous influence upon the Anglo-Saxon mind, will show us the innumerable points at which they are linked in with the previous intellectual development of the world. At the touch of this magician, the history and the poetry, the philosophy and the art of classic ages reappear; the old traditions and mythologies of northern barbarians come forth from the darkness of their sepulchres, and the new philosophy, into which all previous growth had finally flowed, moves everywhere in the two-fold form of revealed religion and inductive science, determining the character and progress of the modern world. There is, it is true, a power of intuition in genius; but no intuition can make one familiar with the intellectual stores of the past, unless those stores are collected and explored. It is the intuition of genius which enables one to perceive what ideas, in all this vast accumulation, are living and eternal; and these ideas are wrought into new and captivating forms, in which, henceforth, they lead in the progress of mankind. It was only because the capacious mind

of Shakespeare became, to such an extent, the receptacle of universal knowledge, that he is, in so great a degree, a universal man.

Take but one more example, in the case of Goethe. Possessed of the most wonderful genius of any man since Shakespeare, he had attained, also, the widest culture. There is scarcely any field of literature, science or art which he had not explored. His works are an epitome of German, and, indeed, of all philosophy. The principles of all previous criticism are analyzed and reduced to a system and science. The controlling ideas of the age have clearer expression given to them, and enter upon a new era of influence in society. The materials which he has wrought into his marvelous creations were scattered everywhere throughout all history, and in every department of thought. He finds them in the majestic intellectual repose of Egypt and the East; in the multitudinous activity of the Grecian mind; in the Roman poetry, oratory, ethics and statemanship; in the dreamy speculations of the middle ages; and in the vast continents of mental wealth which modern research has discovered and explored. The rich accumulations of the past enabled him to give a new impulse to the future. There is thus evident a most intimate relation between the accumulation of literary stores in libraries, the development of genius, and the providing of it with the instruments of its mighty influence.

There is danger, however, that we shall not have any adequate idea of the importance of collecting and preserving books, apparently the most worthless, as well as those which have vindicated their claim to be regarded as standard works. We may admit that the works of the great poets, philosophers and statesmen of the world should be preserved in all our libraries, but we may not unreasonably inquire of what possible use it can be to perpetuate the existence of that which is evidently utterly unworthy to exist? In reply to this inquiry it may be said, that, without taking into account the fact that we may be mistaken in our estimate, and that which we pronounce worthless, the future may find to be of unspeakable value; I say, without taking this into account, the very worthlessness of such productions may be a fact, which it will be at some time, most important to know. In estimating the effects of various systems, social, political or intellectual, upon the mind or character, the discovery of some obscure pamphlet, written under certain influences which may be under consideration, will oftentimes prove a very important witness, and throw unexpected light upon the question involved. Every reflecting reader of Buckle, who has made, perhaps, the most elaborate attempt to treat the History of Civilization inductively,⁴⁸ must have noticed how constantly he appeals to evidence furnished by what is usually considered the mere rubbish of our great libraries. Upon this evidence, thus collected from the

most obscure sources, the character of epochs is in a great measure determined, and the foundations of social systems laid. If his conclusions are not always logically drawn, or his theories sound, he has still incidentally established the value, at least in his department of philosophical history, of every product of thought in every age. Their importance in the department especially of physical science, we shall see as we proceed.

The inductive method of investigation has disclosed the true secret of the progress of the physical sciences. Two things are absolutely requisite in this progress—facts and ideas. According to the conception prevalent down to the time of Lord Bacon, the observation of facts was deemed of but little consequence, and even unworthy of a philosopher. The discovery of natural laws was to be attained by an effort of the mind, occupied alone with the ideas and principles of nature. As an inevitable consequence, science was sterile, and no increase was realized. If discoveries were made at all, they were the results of a happy accident. But just so soon as the true method of investigation came to be clearly understood, the progress of science became wonderfully rapid, and has at last culminated in the brilliant and beneficent discoveries of the present age. It is to be remembered, also, that there must be the observation of facts, not only in order that scientific theories may be suggested to the mind, but that they may also be verified. It

is in the constant observation of phenomena that the true progress of science is to be found. The more extensive the induction of facts, the wider its sweep, and the more comprehensive its details in relation to any subject, the more probable is the attainment of satisfactory results. Every new observation is therefore so much added to the treasury of science, and the scientific achievements of to-day rest upon innumerable observations of nature in the past. It is impossible, therefore, to exaggerate the importance of preserving all the records of observations which at any time have been made in the realm of nature. If they are not needed now, they may be needed, and no one can tell how greatly, in the future. The time may come, and is most likely to come, when some earnest seeker after truth will find in an obscure work, in one of our great libraries, some recorded observation of phenomena that will reveal to him the secret of a natural law which it is of the highest importance for society to understand. Take any of the great discoveries of the laws of nature which have been made. They are not due chiefly to the genius of those who made them. The accumulation of facts, which had become the possession of society, rendered the discoveries of Kepler and Newton inevitable, and *they* became the discoverers only because they were able to interpret these facts more quickly than others. If the knowledge of facts is within reach, there will always be men who will penetrate to the laws which control

them. Nothing then can conduce more greatly to the progress of science, and therefore to the material welfare of society, than the accumulation and preservation of books which contain the records of observed phenomena.

Every department of science furnishes abundant illustrations of this; but perhaps it is nowhere more beautifully illustrated than in the history of discoveries in optics. As we trace this wonderful course of steadily-progressing discovery up to the most brilliant and startling results, we see how each step rests upon the whole previous accumulation of observed facts.

Notwithstanding the aversion of ancient philosophy to the inductive method, Ptolemy had made observations upon the angles of the refraction and incidence of light. These observations were carefully considered, and in certain points corrected, by the Arabian mathematician Alhazen. He also gives directions for making experimental measures of refraction. These observations and hints as to experiments led Vitello, who lived in the thirteenth century, to those investigations which are to be found in his work on optics; but still the true law of refraction was not discovered. Kepler wrote a supplement to Vitello, and attempted to reduce his observations to a law, but while making progress in the right direction, reached only an approximately correct result. From this point, however, Willebrod Snell conducted his investigations

until he discovered the law, as it is called, of the fines. This led to the discovery of the true explanation of the rainbow by Descartes. These observations and results further led to the discovery of the law of dispersion by refraction, and so to the wonderful discovery, by Sir Isaac Newton, of the unequal refrangibility of different rays of light. The discussion of the Newtonian theories, by Sir David Brewster and the celebrated Goethe,⁴⁹ laid the foundations of those wonderful results which have been reached by more modern laborers in the same field—Young and Fresnel and Biot and Faraday and Wollaston and Fraunhofer, not to mention many others in the same departments who have obtained honorable distinction. These results are to be seen in the brilliant discoveries in photography, which have added so much to the beauty and effectiveness of science and art in our day. They are to be seen also in the wonderful conclusions to which the ascertained fact of the polarization of light has led as to the ultimate constitution of matter. And more astonishing and startling than all, is the recent discovery of spectral analysis, which detects with unfailing accuracy the presence of the most minute substances, enables us to tell the elements of which suns and stars are composed, and to resolve the mighty nebulæ upon the far-off confines of creation!⁵⁰

Now, all this progress has been due to the accumulation of facts in this one department of science.

Every recorded observation, even when made the basis of a false theory, has yet been a step in this onward march, and has contributed to the final result. But we are to remember that this is but one of the innumerable departments of science, and by no means the most fertile in practical and beneficial application. The same principle holds good in relation to all. The accumulation and preservation of observed facts and experiments alone insure that rapid development of science which is conferring such benefit and glory upon the present age. The extent to which our interests are affected by scientific investigation is incalculable. There is no avenue to wealth which is not within the domain of science. Whatever relates to navigation, to agriculture, to mining operations, to the various transactions of trade; all that belongs to social institutions and to civil government; whatever is involved in sanitary reform, the prevention and cure of disease, and the promotion of physical vigor; the whole scheme of charitable efforts for the amelioration of the evils of pauperism and the social and moral elevation of mankind; all these, in all their vast extent and relations, are dependent upon the progress of science, and are directly promoted in their efficiency and excellence by the collection and preservation of recorded facts in all the departments to which they relate.

Having thus considered the influence of works of genius and of scientific investigation in social prog-

refs, we have only to consider, in conclusion, the influence of moral and religious ideas, and the bearing upon them of collections of intellectual wealth in libraries. This will require only a brief consideration.

Moral and religious ideas constitute the permanent and stationary influences in social progress, just as scientific discoveries constitute the progressive. It is not true, however, that morals and religion are not also in a very high sense progressive. The difference is this—science depends entirely upon discovery, whereas discovery is a very inferior element in morals and religion. Moral and religious ideas proceed from intuition and revelation. They are more clearly apprehended from one generation to another; but still the elements out of which moral and religious systems are formed are always present in the intuitive operations of the mind, and in the revelation which we have from God. But while this is so, there is need of constant influences in society to lead men to the recognition and acceptance of these moral and religious principles. These influences are of various kinds, but not the least powerful among them is the effect, in a community, of a library on a large and liberal scale, comprising the intellectual wealth of all generations. The moral and religious influence exerted by such a library is manifold. It substitutes a salutary pleasure for gross and vicious indulgences, and confers a moral benefit by proposing intellectual instead of sensual gratification. Scarcely anything is

more calculated to confer pleasure, and at the same time to elevate the soul, than familiarity with the works of the great writers of the world.

If a community can be educated into a taste for literary culture and the beautiful productions of art, and the halls of a great metropolitan library be thrown open to the young, a powerful influence will be exercised to restrain dissipation and to raise the tone of public thought and feeling.

Moral and religious impressions in a community are exceedingly dependent upon the influence of books, and the cultivation of a taste for the fine arts. Books bring to bear upon us the example of the great and good. The record of their virtues, achievements and sacrifices, in all ages, impresses the imagination, excites emulation and rouses action.

But, besides these general impressions and influences, the literature of the world is full of positive testimonies to the power and renovating effect of Christianity upon man and the social state. No one can attentively study the history of the Christian centuries without discerning a force in human affairs, which is wielded by no human arm, which is the product of no mere natural laws, but which is divinely originated and divinely directed for the highest welfare of mankind. Most certain is it, to the historical student, that the progress of the race is inevitably towards the adoption and universal application of the great fundamental Christian ideas. The clearer, however, is the

understanding of this in the world, the more rapidly will this progress be accomplished. Whatever, therefore, illustrates the history and influence of Christianity—whatever serves as a bulwark to the evidences of Christian faith—whatever elevates and spiritualizes the tone of thought and feeling, exercises a most salutary effect upon the moral and religious character of the community.

Now it is amazing to what extent Christian ideas pervade the literature of the Christian world! No one would imagine it, had it not been made a special subject of inquiry. To such a degree is this true, that it has been asserted, and without doubt on good foundation, that if the Scriptures of the Old and New Testament were destroyed, they could be replaced from the writings of the first four centuries of the Christian era. And not only is this so, but history, poetry and art are full to repletion of Christian sentiments and ideas; so that it is scarcely possible to come in contact anywhere with modern thought and investigation without finding ourselves in the presence of the great verities of the Christian faith.

It is not easy, therefore, to exaggerate the influence of libraries in contributing to that force in social progress, which proceeds from the moral and religious ideas, which are based upon a divine revelation. If, therefore, we would strengthen the influences of these ideas in all their manifold applications to the duties of honesty, integrity and benevolence, of loyalty to

government and law, and of universal brotherhood we shall do well to bring that intellectual wealth which survives the destroying influence of time, because it has truth in it, to bear, in large measure, upon the thought and feeling of our age.

I have thus presented the various departments of the subject which has been under consideration. We have seen the history of libraries running parallel with the history of civilization. We have seen their influence upon the great moving forces of social progress, works of genius, scientific discovery, and moral and religious ideas, as based upon a divine revelation.

The legislative action, previously referred to, gives a practical importance to these considerations which it is not easy to exaggerate. The proposition is before us to avail ourselves of the liberal appropriation of land, &c., in the Central Park, which the Commissioners thereof have set apart, for the establishment of the Historical Museum of Antiquities and Science, and a Gallery of Art.⁵¹ It is to be remembered that the chief object for which this Society was established is the collection of books and manuscripts relating to the history of the United States, and especially of the State of New York. In pursuance of this object, the archives of this Society, as has been stated, already contain rich collections of materials which throw light, not only upon our early social and political position and character, but also upon the history of some of the most ancient kingdoms heretofore alluded to, which existed

in ages long antecedent to the dawn of Christianity, and are interwoven with the general history of all subsequent times.

These collections are, year after year, illustrated and enriched by the disquisitions, investigations and contributions of the honorary, corresponding and resident members of this Society, and its friends and supporters at home and abroad. We have thus accumulated, and are constantly engaged in accumulating, treasures of inestimable value for the great historians of our own day, and for those by whom they are to be succeeded. All that has been said of the importance of libraries in general, to the literary and scientific culture of a nation, applies with equal force to the relation and importance of historical documents and books to the history of any people. And this concurrence of events favorable to the establishment on a large scale of a Historical Library and Museum of Science and Art summons us to the enjoyment of this great privilege, and the performance of this imperative duty.

But this library need not and should not be exclusively a Historical Library. It may, and should, in connection with this prominent idea, embrace all the departments of literature and science and arts indirectly, as well as directly, relating to its chief design, and be a centre and source of intellectual light for this city, State and nation.

The opportunity for us now to inaugurate a new

power in the social progress of the nation is one of the grandest that has ever been offered.

We shall be greatly wanting in duty, and insensible to the high privilege bestowed upon us, if we do not embrace it. The peculiar characteristics of the age and of our own position present claims upon us in this respect which have never before been so imperatively urged in the history of the world. This nation is governed not by force, but by ideas. The history of the last four years shows us the tremendous force and supremacy especially of moral ideas. The sphere of these ideas is to be widened, and they are to be impressed more and more deeply upon the public mind. And this can be done in no more effectual way than by establishing well-selected Libraries throughout the land. Our country, more than any other in the world, is dependent upon the virtue of the people; and their virtue is largely dependent upon their intelligence and education; and these depend upon the intellectual stimulus which they receive.

“The *sense of the people*, as we call it,” says Dr. Priestley, “though no nominal part of the constitution, is often felt to be a real check upon public measures, by whomsoever they are conducted; and, though it is only expressed by talking, writing and petitioning, yet tumult and insurrection so often arise, when the voice of the people is loud, that the most arbitrary governments dread the effects of them.” How

potent, then, is that "voice" when it is the utterance of the people themselves, who, in this country, are the governing power.

The city of New York is so situated as to exercise a vast influence upon the destinies of the nation. Its geographical position is such as to place the whole country under contribution. The cotton and rice of the South, the grain and cattle of the West, the products of New England farms, the oil and iron and coal of the Middle States, the mineral wealth, the silver and the gold upon those distant shores which are washed by the waves of the Pacific, find their way to this metropolis, and from this point, as a radiating centre, are poured forth to every portion of the world. It is impossible to deny that this fact bestows unbounded influence upon this great and rapidly expanding city. The traders and merchants and professional men who are called here on business or pleasure come in contact with the great ideas of the age, are imbued with them, and aid, wherever they go, in their diffusion. Whatever intellectual influences are dominant here—whatever system of thought prevails here—will exercise a stupendous power throughout the whole extent of our country.

It is a circumstance most worthy of our consideration that the future prosperity and glory of this city depend upon laws of nature, or, rather, upon nature's GOD. The parallel of latitude upon which we are situated is that which is, perhaps, more than any other,

favorable to the development of the agricultural wealth of the country. And, if we follow that parallel from the Atlantic to the Pacific coast, we shall find that it wonderfully coincides with the great routes necessarily followed by commerce and travel. At the same time, this line of communication is accessible at almost every point from the extreme northern and southern portions of the country.

There is another remarkable fact in our position which confers an extraordinary advantage. This same parallel of latitude, while it is the most favorable, so far as the great interior is concerned, would be too far north were it not for a wonderful provision of nature, by which the heated waters of the Mexican Gulf flow in one mighty stream through the Atlantic Ocean, moderating the severity of the weather on our coast, and making it easily accessible in the most wintry forms. Thus these and other influential facts and circumstances, as by a decree of Heaven, seem to have marked out this spot as the central radiating point of commercial influence, of accumulative facilities of intercourse and combined controlling power, which cannot fail to make the port of New York the chief entrepot of this hemisphere, and the city itself the great distributive emporium for every portion of the New as well as of the principal marts of the Old World.

Now, when we reflect upon the probable future of this Republic, we shall see how vast is the responsibility

which is imposed upon us. We are just entering upon a new era in our history. A fierce and sanguinary struggle, through which we have just passed, and which would have prostrated any other nation, leaves us vastly stronger and more conscious of our strength than before. There are certain peculiarities in our case which, in the Providence of God, have secured this result. For the first time in the history of the world, a government is established whose theory it is to protect no interests and to seek no good but those of the people at large; and this government has for its sphere a vast territory, lying upon two oceans, and embracing every variety of climate and soil. A new and irresistible moral power has been added to this government by the sanction which it has given to universal freedom. God has provided everything here necessary to the grandest development. The sources of our wealth are inexhaustible. They press upon us in every valley, by every stream, on the mountains, through the pathless forests, in the sunless mines. The bracing airs of the temperate zone breath strength and vigor into the frame, and fit man for the task of subjecting to himself the power and riches of nature. The Old World is pouring its millions of population upon our shores, filling up our waste territories and furnishing the wonderfully varied materials which our institutions are to mould and fashion. A stupendous development here of power and grandeur, beyond anything that the world has ever seen, is certain.

Whether it shall be for good or evil depends upon the intelligence and virtue of the people. We might almost fancy the Genius of the Republic, with eye fixed upon the yet distant and uncertain, but swiftly coming future, declaring our possible glory, but warning us of our imminent peril. We may disregard her pleadings, as the deluded Trojans did those of the frenzied Cassandra. If that is so, nothing can be before us but ruin—all the more appalling because of the gigantic scale of the catastrophe. But if we heed her warnings, or, rather, if we listen to the voice of history, consult the oracles of philosophy,—above all, follow the path that is marked out for nations in Divine Revelation,—we shall be the means of conferring the most glorious blessings upon mankind, and reach the summit of human greatness and power.

How wonderfully appropriate to these United States, with their emblematic shield-bearer, and singularly prophetic of the future destiny of our Republic, are those eloquent words of Milton in regard to England: “Methinks I see in my mind a noble
“and puissant nation, rousing herself like a strong
“man after sleep, and shaking her invincible locks;
“methinks I see her as an EAGLE, mewing her mighty
“youth, and kindling her undazzled eyes at the full
“mid-day beam; purging and unsealing her long-
“abused sight at the fountain itself of heavenly
“radiance; while the whole noise of timorous and

“flocking birds, with those also that love the twilight,
“flutter about, amazed at what she means.”

Taking these two thoughts, the vast influence of the city upon the intellectual and moral character of the nation, and the wonderful destiny which is before it, is there not imposed upon us a most solemn responsibility to make this city a source of intelligence and virtue for the whole land? And what can we in our sphere do towards accomplishing this result better than to lay the foundations of a Library, Museum of Antiquities and Science, and Gallery of Art, such as that which I am now advocating—a Library, Museum and Gallery for the whole people, such as is commensurate with our greatness and unrivaled prosperity, one which shall furnish every facility for the student in every department of his investigations, which shall rouse the public mind to noble impulses by the magic influence of genius, which shall stimulate scientific discovery, which shall add strength to all moral and religious institutions and ideas, which shall be a home for the poor, for whose elevation our very system of government is designed, where they who are shut out from so many of the refining effects of social intercourse may silently commune with the great intellects of all ages of the world.

The large-hearted and liberal-minded merchants, the men of wealth, literary, antiquarian and professional men, the men of science and the lovers of art, citizens of New York, and all wheresoever resident,

who are interested in the great work which this Society earnestly recommends to their patronage and liberality, could not well perform a grander act or attain a higher glory than by laying the foundation of such a metropolitan, or rather cosmopolitan LIBRARY, MUSEUM AND GALLERY, with all the appliances which such an institution can possibly enjoy. Those who shall accomplish it will need no other memorial. In the coming generations, should their monument be sought, the historian might point to the material prosperity, the boundless charity and moral greatness of this city and nation, so largely resulting from their far-reaching wisdom and liberality, and say, as was said of CHRISTOPHER WREN, amid the glories of St. Paul's Cathedral, "Si monumentum
"quæris, circumspice."



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NOTES.



1. T. Liv. Hist. lib. xxxiii., c. 32.
2. Cicero in Ver., 7, n. 161 and 162.
3. Article "Flamininus," "Classical Dictionary," by Charles Anthon, LL. D.
4. The seeds referred to are of the mustard tree, known, commonly, among naturalists as the "Salvadora Persica." In Syria it is called "khardal." See Dr. Royle's Paper, in the Athenæum of March 28, 1844, and the Gentleman's Magazine, June, 1844. Also, Plin. H. N., 1, 20, C. B. 7, and D'Herbelot, Biblioth. Orient., S. V. Escander.

5. "Table Talk" of S. T. Coleridge, Harper & Bro.'s Ed., under date of April 10, 1833.

6. The Life of M. Tullius Cicero, by Conyers Middleton. Vol. II., p. 186. London, 1823. The following is the verse referred to in the text :

Εἵπερ γὰρ ἀδικεῖν χρεή, τυραννίδος πέρι
Κάλλιστον ἀδικεῖν, τᾶλλα δ' εὖσεβείν χρεών.

Eurip. Phœnissæ, 524-5.

"For if it behooves one to be unjust, it is most glorious to be unjust concerning empire, but in all other things it is right to be just."

See also Suet. Jul. 53, "Verbum M. Catonis est, unum ex omnibus Cæsarem ad evertendam republicam Sobrium accessisse."

7. Coleridge's "Table Talk," Harper & Bro.'s Ed., p. 53.

8. The Life and Correspondence of Thomas Arnold, D. D. Appleton's Ed., pp. 160, 161.

9. See note by Dean Stanley, at foot of above, p. 161 of Arnold's Life, &c.

10. Coleridge's "Table Talk." Same edition, pp. 78, 79.

11. Diog. Lært., lib. vi., cap. 2, sec. 6.

12. The Poet's Pilgrimage, stanza lvii., Robert Southey, Poet Laureate. Lectures on History, &c., by Dr. Joseph Priestley, LL. D., F. R. S. London, 1826. On page 403 the author remarks that, "In modern times, though an end has been put to servitude in the Christian countries of Europe, it has been greatly extended in our Colonies, slaves being purchased in Africa and transported, in order to their

being employed in America. But both the injustice and the ill-policy of this system is now pretty generally acknowledged." Had not the Royal ear of England been deaf to the remonstrances of some of those Colonies, the civil war drawing to a close, which slavery occasioned, and which that war has abolished, had probably never occurred. "Man proposes, GOD disposes." By the Roman laws, slaves, as in our South, were considered not as *men*, but as *res*, the property of their masters; and the Romans, as Montesquieu observes, "being accustomed to trample upon mankind in the persons of their children and slaves, could know but very little of that virtue which we distinguish by the name of humanity." A chained slave for a porter was a common sight at Rome; and Vedius Pollio used to throw his slaves, who had disobeyed him, into his fish-ponds to be preyed upon by the mullets. The following observation, it has been well said, argues that increase of population was little encouraged by the Romans among their slaves. "It is an universal observation, which we may form upon language, that when two related parts of a *whole* bear any proportion to each other, in numbers, rank or consideration, there are always *co-relative terms* invented, which answer to both parts and express their mutual relation. If they bear no proportion to each other, the term is only invented for the less, and marks its distinction from the whole. Thus, *man* and *woman*, *master* and *servant*, *father* and *son*, *prince* and *subject*, *stranger* and *citizen*, are co-relative terms in all languages—indicating that each part signified by them bears a considerable proportion to one another, and are often compared together. But *verna*, the Latin name of a *slave born in the family*, has no co-relative."—Hume's *Essays*, xi., 1777, 1, 555. *Ibid.*, pp. 407, 556.

There is an illustration of this curious observation of Hume in the XXVII. Ode of Horace, "Ad Sodales: "

"Quæte cunque domat Venus,
Non erubescendis adurit
Ignibus, ingenuoque semper
Amore peccas."

Francis, in his edition of Horace, comments, in a note, upon the last words thus: "They who had an intrigue with a slave were branded with the name of *Ancillarioli*, as men of fordid and infamous passions—such passions as the poet here calls *erubescendi ignes*."

The South, cut off from the "slave trade" with Africa, encouraged home production, and this mode of adding to their slave population no doubt occasioned great demoralization, and helped to precipitate it into the late savage and disastrous rebellion.

13. Principi di Scienza-Nuova. G. B. Vico. Milano, 1831.

14. Die Bestimmung des Menschen, dargestellt von Johann Gottlieb Fichte, Erste

Aufgabe. Berlin Vofs'sche Buchhandlung, 1800. Zweite unveränderte Aufgabe Ebendafelbst, 1838.

15. Ueber die Gottheiten von Samothrace, vorgelesen in der "öffentlichen Sitzung der Bayrischen Akademie der Wissenschaften am Namenstage des Königs der 12 Oct., 1815. Beylage zu der Veltaltern von Fr. V. J. Schelling.

16. Georg. Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel's Vorlesungen über die Philosophie der Religion, Nebst einer Schrift über die Beweise von Dasein Gottes, herausgegeben von Dr. Philipp Marheineke, Erste Theil. Zweite verbesserte Auflage. Berlin, 1840.

Georg. Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel's Vorlesungen über die Philosophie der Geschichte herausgegeben von Dr. Edward Gans. Berlin, 1837.

17. Cours de Philosophie Positive par M. August Comte. Paris, Bachelier, Libraire Pour Les Mathematiques, 1830.

18. Diodorus Siculus, lib. 1, c. 2.

19. Manners and Customs of Ancient Egyptians, vol. 1, pp. 111-116.

20. Lettres, 285, quoted by Kenrick, Ancient Egypt, vol. 1, p. 155.

21. Machab., lib. 11, c. 11, v. 13.

22. Judges xv., v. 15.

23. Ib., v. 49.

24. Rapport à le Ministre de l'Instruction Publique, in the Archives des Missions Scientifiques. Mai, 1856. Vol. v., p. 179.

25. Strabo, lib. xiii., pp. 608, 609.

26. Athenæus, Deipnosophistarum libri xv. lib. 1-4.

27. Joseph, Ant. Jud., lib. 1, c. 2.

28. Enc. Brit., Art Libraries.

29. This and the following statements in regard to modern libraries are derived, in great part, from the article on Libraries in the Encyclopædia Britannica.

30. Consult same article.

31. και ταυτα ὅτι γεγρονε, δυνασθε μαθειν εκ των επι Ποντις Πιλατς γενομενων ακτων. J. M. Ap. 1, p. 76, C. Paris, 1636. Num. 36, p. 65, Bened.

32. Ὅτι δε και ταυτα εποισεν, εκ των επι Ποντις Πιλατς γενομενων ακ των μαθειν δυνασθε. Ib., p. 84, C. Paris. Num. 48, p. 72, Bened.

33. Ea omnia super Christo, Pilatus, et ipse jam pro sua conscientia Christianus, Caesari tunc Tiberio nuntiavit. Tertull. Ap., c. 21, p. 22, C.

34. Et tamen eum mundi casum relatum in arcanis vestris habetis. Ib., c. 21.

35. Philo de Leget; ad Caium, p. 1016, A.

36. Sueton., Tiber., c. 74, tom. 1, p. 324.

37. Aulus Gellius Hist. Alt., lib. xiii., c. 19.

38. Vopisci Hist. Aug. Scriptores, p. 233.

39. Apol., cap. 5, p. 6.
40. Euseb. H. E., l. 2, cap. 2.
41. Chrys. Hom. 26, in 2 Cor., t. x, p. 624, A.
42. P. Oros., l. 7, c. 4.
43. Zonar, Ann., t. 2, p. 176.
44. Niceph., l. 2, cap. 8.
45. Christus Tiberio imperatore, per procuratorem Pontium Pilatum supplicio adfectus est.—Tacit., Ann. xv., 44.
46. Philosophy of History, Vol. I., p. 352.
47. Studies on Homer and the Homeric Age: by the Rt. Hon. W. E. Gladstone, D. C. L. Oxford, at the University Press, 1857.
48. History of Civilization in England: by Henry Thomas Buckle. 2 vols. New York, D. Appleton & Co., 1858.
49. Zur Farbenlehre von Goethe, Tübingen, 1810.
50. History of the Inductive Sciences: by Wm. Whewell, D.D. 2 vols. New York, D. Appleton & Co., 1858.
51. The following is a description of the premises set apart by the Commissioners for The Historical Museum :

“The building within said Park, heretofore known as the New York State Arsenal, together with the grounds under, around, and adjoining the same, bounded as follows, to wit: commencing at a point where the northerly line of Sixty-third Street, if continued in the same line north-westerly, would intersect the westerly line of Fifth Avenue; thence north-westerly on a line at right angles with the Fifth Avenue two hundred and sixty feet; thence north-easterly on a line parallel with the Fifth Avenue two hundred feet; thence north-westerly on a line at right angles with said avenue one hundred and ninety feet; thence north-easterly on a line parallel with the said avenue two hundred and sixty feet; thence south-easterly on a line at right angles with the said avenue four hundred and fifty feet to the westerly line of said avenue; and thence along the westerly line of said avenue four hundred and sixty feet to the place of beginning.”



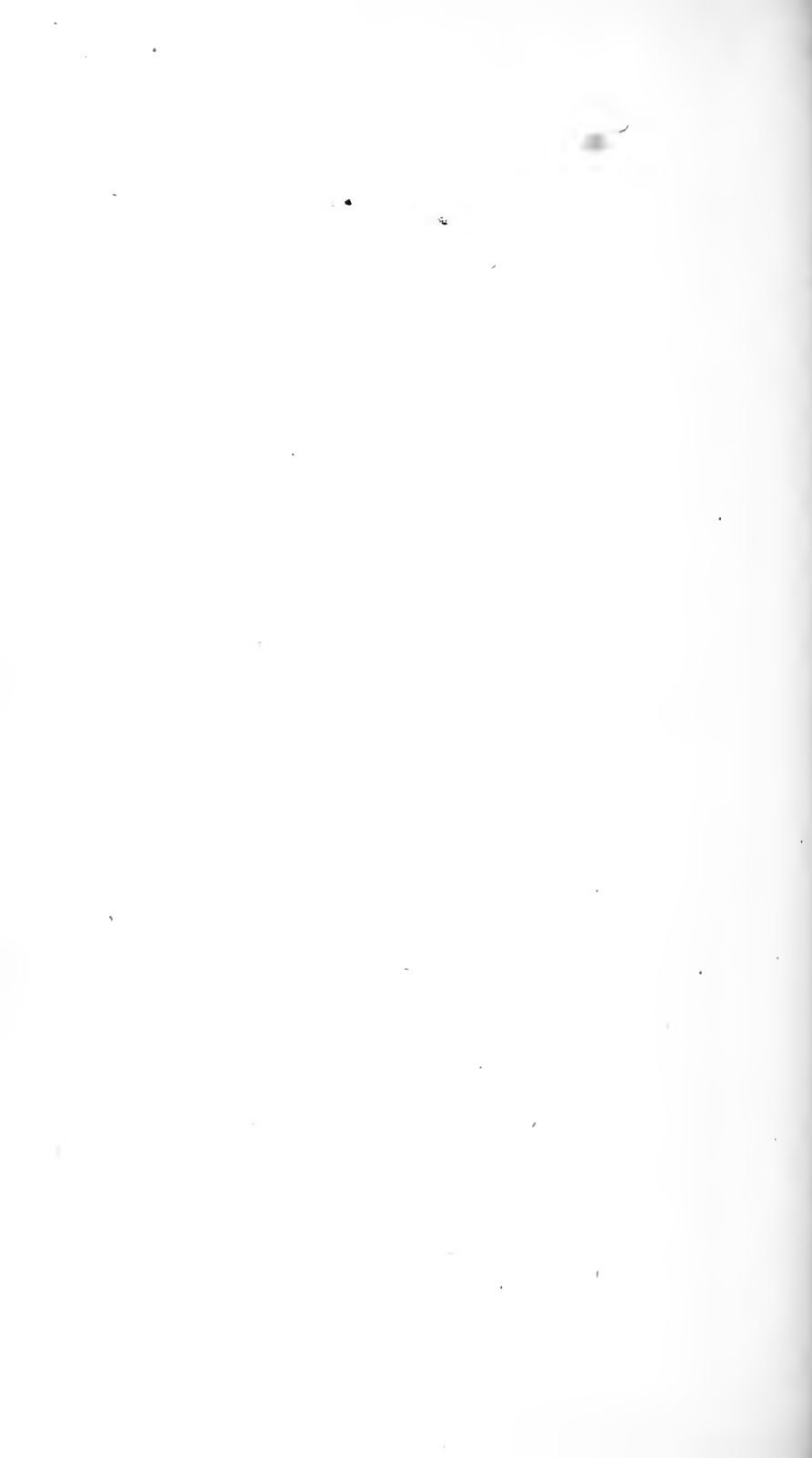
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Samuel S. Green²

THE RELATION OF THE PUBLIC LIBRARY

TO THE

PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

by
J. M. C.



THE RELATION OF THE PUBLIC LIBRARY

TO THE

PUBLIC SCHOOLS:

A PAPER READ AT THE MEETING OF THE AMERICAN SOCIAL SCIENCE
ASSOCIATION, HELD AT SARATOGA, SEPT. 7-11, 1880,

BY

SAMUEL S. GREEN,

LIBRARIAN OF THE FREE PUBLIC LIBRARY, WORCESTER, MASSACHUSETTS.

REPRINTED FROM THE JOURNAL OF SOCIAL SCIENCE.

BOSTON:

TOLMAN & WHITE, PRINTERS, 383 WASHINGTON STREET.
1880.

THE RELATION OF THE PUBLIC LIBRARY TO THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

It is obviously important to maintain close relations between libraries and educational institutions which are designed for students whose minds are somewhat mature.

A wise college professor encourages and stimulates learners to look at subjects from many points of view, to examine processes by which scholars reach conclusions, and to make investigations themselves. Such methods only are requisite when a period of history is to be studied, opinions regarding questions in political economy or natural history to be considered, an English or classical author to be interpreted, or controverted questions in philosophy or theology to be discussed.

Students in advanced educational institutions, should, therefore, have free access to the best books in all departments of knowledge. They need instructors who, however positive their own opinions may be in regard to controverted questions, and however earnest they may be in uttering these convictions, nevertheless are animated by a broad, unsectarian spirit in teaching. They need, also, books to enable them to pursue their studies in accordance with the views and spirit of such instructors.

At Brown University, it is considered practicable to allow students to go into the alcoves without permission, and take from the shelves such books as they wish to use.

While inspecting, three years ago, the library in the building especially devoted to the study of Natural History, at Oxford University, I noticed that much space was given to collections of books needed by students in their daily work. These books were kept by themselves, and old books were withdrawn from the shelves and new ones added as occasion required. Students had free access to these collections, and were thus kept from the discouragement which young inquirers, may I not say nearly all inquirers, feel in selecting, with no aid but that afforded by the catalogue of

a large library, such books as are needed in somewhat limited researches.

In Harvard College library a large number of the professors designate works to be set aside, on shelves prepared for the purpose, for the use of students in pursuing courses of instruction given by them; and I learn from its distinguished librarian that it is his purpose to select from the great collection of books under his charge 30,000 or 40,000 volumes, to be used by students as a working library.

They are to have the privilege of roaming at pleasure through the shelving devoted to this collection, and of rummaging at will among the books. As works become antiquated they will be removed from these shelves, and new ones will be constantly placed upon them.

Additional advantages are within reach where, as in Rochester University, it is the practice of several of the professors to meet students at the library during specified hours, to talk over with them subjects that they are interested in, and assist in the selection of books needed in their investigation and treatment. Where, as in the largest colleges of the country, it is not customary for the professors to meet many of the students, excepting in the class, or lecture-room, there should be a librarian, or competent assistant, whose duty it is to give whatever time is needed in rendering assistance to persons engaged in investigation. Such an officer should be careful not to render the inquirer dependent, and only to remove obstacles enough to make investigation attractive.

The librarian of a college can easily supplant his general knowledge of books with the special bibliographical information had by the professors of the institution.

The student often needs to be referred to sources of information. If, for example, he has to consider one of the applications of science to the arts, arrangements at the library should be such that he will have standard works and monographs pointed out to him, and his attention called to the sets of proceedings and transactions of learned societies, and periodicals which should be consulted by him, with the aid of indices, in seeking for the information he desires.

It is not enough to set aside in a college library collections of books illustrative of the various branches of knowledge. Students need, also, the assistance of accomplished professors, or a well-

informed librarian, in making researches. This assistance leads to a more thorough performance of work in hand.

It does more than this, however. Its best results are found in the knowledge which it gives the inquirer of finding out how to get at information by the use of books, and in the formation in him of the habit of making investigations, and in the acquisition of facility in their conduct.

It may be mentioned incidentally, that where higher educational institutions depend upon public libraries for books, and these are situated at a distance from their buildings, it has proved useful in one instance, at least, to enlist students in the work of making an index of some of the principal sets of transactions which they and the professors have oftenest to consult, to be kept where its use will be convenient to them.

Academies and High Schools need access to well-furnished libraries. Worcester, Massachusetts, is a small city of about 60,000 inhabitants; it has many educational institutions besides its public schools. In addition to the Free Institute of Industrial Science, and the College of the Holy Cross, institutions which make a constant use of the Public Library, but which, for our present purpose, should be classed with colleges, it has a State Normal School, an Endowed Academy, a Military School, and several smaller schools for young ladies and boys. It has, also, a large High School. Teachers and pupils from all of these schools make a large use of the Public Library every day. Thus the students at the Normal School use it for a variety of purposes. They are required, for example, to choose subjects which they will talk about before the school for a few minutes. They come to the library with subjects selected on which they wish for information; this they get when they can from reference books which they are allowed to consult without asking permission. They call, too, for such books as they desire. When, however, as is frequently the case, they do not know what the sources of information are, or which of several books it is well to read or study, they go to the librarian for assistance, and he points out to them books, pamphlets and articles which contain the material desired by them in the form they wish. The librarian, in searching for information, conducts the search, in so far as is possible, in the presence of the inquirer, so as to teach him how to get at information desired.

These pupils are also required to write essays on various topics

illustrative of the principles and art of instruction. The librarian refers them to the writings of such authors as Richter and Rosseau, Locke and Bain, Mann and Spencer, and to sets of such periodicals as Barnard's Journal of Education, and to series of volumes containing addresses and accounts of discussions in the annual meetings of the American Institute of Instruction, the National Educational Association, and other bodies; and to reports of the best supervisors and superintendents of schools.

Professor Russell, the Principal of the Normal School, in writing about the connection between the public library and this school, last April, made the following statements: "I find, upon inquiry, that during the current school year, beginning last September, not less than 64 per cent. of the students of the State Normal School have had occasion to visit the Public Library to pursue investigations connected with their studies, several reporting upwards of twenty such visits, and this, notwithstanding the fact that the school is situated at a distance from the library, and that we have an excellent, though small working library of our own. The works thus consulted cover a wide range, but are chiefly in the departments of science, history, art, politics, statistics, biography and general literature. So far as our own school is concerned, therefore, we could not, without serious loss, dispense with so valuable an auxiliary in the training of teachers for the public schools. Moreover, I find that our graduates who go away from Worcester to teach, very generally complain of the inconvenience and privation they feel in being cut off from the privileges of the Public Library."

In the High School, some of the teachers, for the purpose of cultivating readiness in expression, and ease in composition, as well as with the object of rendering the knowledge of subjects taught thorough, require scholars to talk and write frequently about subjects suggested by the lessons and lectures, and thus to pursue limited investigations in such branches of knowledge as history, chemistry, English literature, and classical biography and antiquities. It is customary in this school, when questions occur to the teacher that cannot be answered by the use of books at hand, or are asked by scholars, for a teacher or pupil to go to the library before the next session of the school, and by consultation with the librarian, or an assistant, select works containing the answers sought.

An advanced class which is listening to lectures on some of the more important practical topics in political economy, and the science of republican government, will be told to give in writing the history of the movement for civil service reform, and an account of the arguments brought forward in favor of plans proposed to further it, and in opposition to them, or a description of the proceedings of Congress which led to the formation of the electoral commission, after the last presidential election ; or of the arguments used for and against woman suffrage. Another advanced class will be required to write essays on such subjects as fermentation and disinfectants.

Some of the teachers come to the library, and in consultation with the librarian select large numbers of books more or less closely connected with the studies which scholars are at the time pursuing, and recommend them to pupils to read in connection with their lessons or for entertainment. Many of the teachers consult the librarian in regard to books to be used by them in their own preparation for class work.

Some teachers bring classes to the library to see illustrations of the architecture of Greece and Rome, or specimens of early printing and illumination, or examples of the work of great artists. They are received there in a large room furnished with a table and settees, and well heated and lighted.

Mr. Samuel Thurber, the Principal of the High School, wrote in a paper which is dated June 15, 1879, as follows : —

“ Pupils of the High School, in common with other citizens of Worcester, are exceptionally favored in their opportunities for reading and investigation in the Free Public Library. That they take advantage of these admirable facilities is evident to any one who sits for an hour in the afternoon with the librarian, and observes the boys and girls of all classes who come with their questions concerning almost all matters in history, science, and literature. The librarian and his assistants must know pretty well what is going on in the school. * * * There is a past-meridian session of the school every day over in Elm street. While the regular teachers are hurrying and worrying with college classes, these afternoon teachers in the other building are patiently having their session, which does not end at any particular time, but only when each questioner is answered or, at least, shown how to find his answer. We do not see why these Elm street folks are not just as

much high school teachers as those who congregate each morning in the great building with the tower."

Again, under date of April 5, 1880, Mr. Thurber writes: "As an ally of the high school, the public library is not merely useful—it is absolutely indispensable. By this I mean that without the library our work would have to be radically changed for the worse, and would become little better than mere memorizing of text-books. Our teachers and pupils throng the library, and there acquire the habit of investigation, and of independent, well-grounded opinion on a multitude of subjects of the utmost importance to citizens in a republican State. Without the school, occasion for exploring the library would arise much less frequently; and without the library the desire for knowledge, constantly awakened in the school, would have to go unsatisfied."

The teachers and scholars of the grammar, and some lower grades of schools, may derive great advantages from the use of facilities which it is in the power of public libraries to afford them. Few friends of education seem to have found out, however, that a close connection between public libraries and schools of these grades is practicable, even when they have come to realize that it is desirable. Wishing, therefore, to give a practical turn to this paper I think that I cannot do better than to write out an account of some efforts in this direction, made in Worcester during the last winter and spring. Four gentlemen, interested in the movement, namely: the Superintendent of the Public Schools; a member of the School Committee, who was also a member of the Board of Directors of the Public Library; the Principal of the Normal School, and the Librarian of the Public Library, came together late in the fall of 1879, for the purpose of considering whether it was desirable and feasible to bring about a considerable use, for school purposes, of the books in the public library by the teachers and pupils of the schools of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades. These gentlemen agreed that the studies of scholars would be made pleasanter and more profitable were such use to be made of the Public Library.

They thought, also, that in the event of the establishment of a close connection between the library and these grades of schools, much good might be done in guiding the home reading of children at an age when the habits of reading and study are forming. But an obstacle suggested itself at the start, namely: the crowded state of the course of study. This was overcome by deciding to confine

the attention, in the beginning, to efforts to secure the benefits first mentioned, and even in this direction to aim only at the gradual introduction of improved methods. The conclusions reached were that it was advisable to proceed to the immediate use of attractive library books in the study of geography, and that in order to get the additional time needed in carrying the new plan into execution, as well as for the purpose of making the exercise in reading more interesting and useful, the reading of classes should be largely done from carefully selected books of travel instead of from reading-books. The Superintendent of Schools invited the librarian to lay the plan proposed before the teachers in the grades of schools mentioned above; and when they had been called together he pointed out to them that there were many things that could be done in schools to better advantage than at present were there a close connection between the library and the schools, offering at the same time to aid them in doing any good work they might wish to undertake, but advising them to try the limited plan which had been agreed upon at the meeting of the gentlemen just mentioned, whether they attempted anything else or not.

The teachers listened in an interested manner, and many of them showed not only readiness, but anxiety to undertake the work it was suggested they should do. The librarian then invited them to select some country that they would like to have illustrated by means of books belonging to the library. They selected one, and came to the library building the next half-holiday to listen to the promised exposition. The librarian had before him, say, one hundred volumes, relating to the country in the description of which aid was to be afforded, and pointed out wherein the value of each one consisted to assist teachers and scholars in studying geography. They saw at once that valuable aid could be had from the library in their work of teaching, and the next step taken by the librarian was to invite them to tell him what countries the children were studying about at that time, and to keep him informed in regard to those they were at work upon at other times, in order that he might help them to pick out works suitable for school use.

Books were at once selected for the immediate use of teachers and scholars. The teachers needed books of travel and other works to read themselves, and from which to select interesting passages for children to read in the class, or to be read to them, and incidents to be related to the scholars orally. Volumes had to be

picked out, too, for the children to use in the place of reading-books, books of the right size; well printed, freely illustrated with really good wood-cuts, or engravings from metal, written in good English, and adapted to the ages of the children to whom they were to be given, and calculated to interest them. Books were also selected that treated of subjects closely connected with the lessons, for children to read by themselves in unoccupied hours in school, or for entertainment and improvement at home. The library arranged to issue two new kinds of cards, one for the benefit of teachers, the other to be used by teachers for the benefit of scholars. On cards of the first kind six books might be taken out by instructors, to be used in preparing themselves for school work, or for serious study in any direction. On the other kind of cards it was permissible to take out twelve volumes, for the use of scholars whose reading teachers had undertaken to supervise. These cards it was supposed would be used chiefly for the benefit of such children as were not entitled, by age, to have one of the cards usually issued by the library, or whose parents had neglected or been unwilling to take out cards for their use. Teachers were invited to bring classes to the library to look over costly collections of photographs and engravings, illustrative of the scenery, animals and vegetation of different countries, and of street views in cities.

A few obstacles were met with. For instance, teachers wished, before adopting the new methods in studying geography, to know whether examinations at the end of the school term were to be on the text-books alone. They were assured by the proper officers that if they adopted the new system of teaching, the examinations should be made to conform to it. It soon became apparent that some of the more enterprising teachers, by a skilful use of the facilities afforded at the library, got more than their proper proportion of the books on a given subject in which there was an interest felt in several schools at once, and kept books out of the library so long as to prevent other teachers from working to advantage. The heads of buildings were called together, and removed these difficulties by making certain agreements, satisfactory to themselves and the librarian, in regard to the time the teachers in any one building should keep out books, and respecting other pertinent matters.

Soon a good start in our work was secured and most of the obstacles disappeared. More duplicates were needed than could be supplied at once, but by consultation and a careful consideration

of means at our disposal this difficulty was lessened. It will disappear altogether in time, because, when a close connection is established between schools and libraries, the latter will consider carefully the needs of the former and add every year large numbers of books on all subjects taught in the schools, and of works which it is wholesome for children to use in home reading. As the course of studies in the schools remains the same, or nearly so year by year, the library will soon have on its shelves books enough to supply adequately the needs of teachers and scholars.

One or two general features of the plan I have described should be mentioned. An earnest effort was made to bring about intimate relations between the librarian and teachers so that the latter would feel free to state all their wants and difficulties, and the librarian have an opportunity of finding out whatever is faulty in his arrangements and procedure. Much has been left to the judgment of individual teachers. It is always important that this should be done. It seems doubly so in a case such as the present where but few results of experience are obtainable.

Good results have followed the movement in Worcester. One hundred and nineteen* teachers took out either a teachers' or a pupils' card during the four months that elapsed, after putting the plans in execution, before the close of the schools for the summer vacation. Seventy-seven of these teachers took out both kinds of cards. All the cards taken out have been used. Most of them have been used constantly, and the number of books given out on them has been large. Besides these a very large number of books has been circulated by means of cards commonly used in the library which scholars have given up to their teachers, with a request for assistance in the selection of books for general reading.

The testimony of teachers and scholars has been uniformly to the effect that the use of books from the library has added much to the profitableness and interest of the exercises in reading and geography. It has been noticed that scholars enjoy reading from a well illustrated book of travels (*e. g.*, *Zig-Zag Journeys*, or *Knox's Boy Travellers in the East*), and that in its use they read understandingly and with increased expression. The members of the class while not reading feel inclined to listen, and, when asked,

*There are about two hundred teachers of all grades in the public schools and, say, fifty in private schools.

show ability to tell the teacher what others have been reading about. Scholars break off from the reading lesson, too, with a desire for its continuance. Two ladies having charge of a room in one of the grammar school buildings tell me that they have fitted up a dressing-room, in which they arrange on a table illustrated books taken from the library, and that as a reward for good recitations one day, they allow scholars to go into that room the next day, a dozen or so at a time, to gather around the table to look at the illustrations and listen to the teacher's description of countries illustrated. These teachers say that lessons have been much better learned since the adoption of this plan than before, and announce that they intend to teach geography largely in this way in future.

In doing the work I have been describing, it was hoped that besides rendering study more profitable and agreeable to children, they would learn, incidentally, that there are many books which are interesting and yet not story books. Teachers tell me this has been the case. Two in particular have stated that boys who were in the habit of reading New York story papers and dime novels, have gratefully received wholesome books recommended by them. The books and papers they had been reading had been thrust on their attention. They knew of no others that are interesting.

One of these teachers says that some of the scholars reminded her of hungry men unable to get nourishing food, in seizing upon anything they could lay hands on to satisfy a longing for reading matter. One of the grammar school principals, with the aid of some of his assistants, has done a very considerable work in influencing the reading of his scholars. He has used teachers' and pupils' cards held in the building under his charge, and in talking with the scholars has incited them to ask him to take possession of their cards and help them pick out books. Two of his assistants have made it a part of their work to consult the catalogues of the library and printed and manuscript lists of books which the librarian placed in their hands, and in the use of these facilities, and by the aid of the librarian, to select large numbers of books for the use of scholars. This principal sends to the library cards for fifty books at a time. The books are taken to the school and put in the charge of one of the scholars, who has been made librarian. They are looked over by the teachers, and some volumes are retained by them to be used in the reading exercise, or for silent reading in connection with the lessons. Most of the books, however, the

scholars are allowed to examine freely, with the object of selecting from them such as they find interesting to take away from the building to read at home. It has seemed to me that this grammar school instructor and his assistants, are doing a very important work for the benefit of the community.

In doing this kind of work a special catalogue of, say, 2,000 volumes is very much needed. Such lists of books which have been issued in Boston, and elsewhere, for use in schools, as have come under my notice, are inadequate. They are made up in altogether too large a proportion of books, which, however excellent in themselves, are only adapted to the capacity of mature pupils. Sufficient care is not taken in them to designate the age of children for which particular books are designed. What is wanted, especially, is a selection of books for children between the ages of eleven and fifteen, every one of which is known from actual perusal by competent persons to be really a good book, and one adapted to the capacity of young folks. I have recently made some efforts to have such a catalogue prepared, and I am happy to be able to state that several ladies in Boston who are very familiar with this kind of work, and the value of whose work has already been thoroughly tested, are now engaged preparing such a list. I hope this can be published in the course of a few months. It is intended to use notes to show what the contents of a book are when its title does not indicate them. Meanwhile, I can only refer teachers to such sources of information as I mentioned in an essay on sensational fiction, read before the American Library Association at its meeting in the summer of 1879 (and published subsequently in the *Library Journal*, and privately printed in pamphlet form), and to librarians and other persons who may be supposed to have special information regarding books.

Among ways not before mentioned in which the teachers of grammar and lower grades of schools have used the library, are the following: Some have requested every member of a class to go to the library to get information about some of the mountains, waterfalls or mineral springs of the United States, or about other specified objects to be embodied afterwards in short compositions. One teacher has adopted a plan which, as I have stated, is in use in the high school, and has brought a class of children to the library building to look at costly representations of the scenery, occupations, buildings, costumes, &c., found in China and Japan.

It is customary with some teachers, when the scholars are studying American history, to procure from the library graphic accounts of periods covered by the current lessons, to lend to pupils to use in the evening, in acquiring a more extended knowledge of incidents treated of only briefly in the portion of the text-book studied during any particular day. One teacher whose school is situated at a distance from the library building, asked a wealthy citizen to buy for the school a hundred or more of the books which she most needed in her work. He complied with her request at once, and, after several consultations with the librarian, she made an admirable selection of books, which were bought for her at the low rates at which libraries make purchases.

Even in lower grades of schools than the seventh, considerable assistance may be afforded teachers where towns are enlightened enough to spend money in providing in their libraries books adapted to little children, as well as those suited to older boys and girls, and persons who have grown up. Several of them have found such books as *Tiny's Natural History*, in words of four letters, by A. S. Bond, and bound volumes of the *Nursery*, as well as stories such as those in *Miss Edgeworth's Parent's Assistant*, and *Grimms' Fairy Tales*, very useful in doing school work. Valuable suggestions in regard to work that may be done by the coöperation of schools and libraries, are to be found in a paper read by Mr. William E. Foster, librarian of the Providence Public Library, before the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, last January, and recently published by the Institute in a pamphlet with two other papers.

Of teachers in Boston who have used the public library in that city, in connection with school work, the one whose use is oftenest mentioned is Mr. Robert C. Metcalf, Master of the Wells Grammar School for Girls. Unless I misunderstand a recent utterance of Mr. Metcalf, there is only one kind of work that he has found it feasible to do in connection with the public library, namely, that of teaching children to read attentively, and with comprehension of what they are reading. He sends to the library for, say, twenty copies of some such publication as *Towle's Pizarro*, or one of the longer poems of Longfellow, has every member of the class read the book selected very carefully, a portion of it at a time, and sets times when he will examine them or the parts of a book assigned for reading to see whether they know just what the author has written, and have studied his characteristics in expression. This

is an excellent exercise. Valuable aid in conducting it may be found in School Documents, Nos. 17 and 29, 1877, and 21, 1878, issued by the supervisors of schools in Boston. If additional evidence of the need of it is desired, it may be found in the record of the results of an examination of the schools in Norfolk County, Massachusetts, printed in the last report of the Massachusetts Board of Education. It is a matter for consideration, however, whether it is the province of a public library to supply books needed for this exercise. Judge Chamberlain, the librarian of the Boston Public Library, gives reasons in his last annual report why they should be furnished by the library. On the other hand, it may be said that school committees which conduct schools with intelligence supply collateral reading to teachers, and that it is quite in the line of this undertaking to furnish books needed for the kind of work done by Mr. Metcalf. There should be no quarrel over this matter. Teachers should have the books needed in doing work of this kind, whatever may be the method it is thought wise to adopt in supplying them in any given town, whether it seem best to have them provided by the public library, or by the school committee, or to have them bought with money secured by subscription. Numerous duplicates of but a few books are needed, since a work, after being studied in one school can be passed along to other schools of the same grade to be studied in them, and good books, suitable for the purpose mentioned, are published at the Clarendon press, and by American publishers, at very low prices. There is a way, too, in which some of the advantages of this kind of work can be secured by aid usually afforded by libraries, namely, by dividing a class into groups of four or five members, and giving to the scholars in each group a separate book to examine. Books and magazine articles could be chosen that children have ready access to at home, as well as in libraries. Some pupils would be willing to buy copies of inexpensive books. That such a plan as this has been followed with success in one case at least is shown in an article entitled "The Weekly 'Reading Hour' in a Providence (R. I.) School," published in the New England Journal of Education for February 19, 1880.

Is it practicable to do in large cities the work which it has been shown has been well begun in a city of 58,000 inhabitants? It seems to me easy to do it there. But how could we deal with the masses of men, women and children, who, under the plan proposed, would use

libraries for purposes of reference in large cities? Would not the numbers of applicants for information be so great as to forbid much consultation between officers of libraries and students and readers? No; in doing this kind of work deal with inquirers in the branch libraries as well as at the central building. The large cities of England and America have found themselves best able to fulfil their functions in the community by establishing numerous branch libraries, in a circle around the central library, in different sections of the territory which they cover. A considerable portion of the books in the branch libraries should be selected with especial reference to the needs of teachers and scholars. Persons should be placed at their head who have been chosen, because, among other qualifications, they have the ability to render assistance in the commoner fields of investigation to ordinary inquirers. Large collections of books are not needed in doing work in connection with schools. Small branch libraries selected with regard for their wants, when supplemented by the resources of the collection in the main building, are adequate. In furtherance of the work of rendering assistance to inquirers among scholars and teachers, there should be at the central library some man of large general acquaintance with books, and of zeal for the dissemination of knowledge, to whom teachers and others in search of information may have ready access when in search of knowledge regarding any subject they are interested in. He should have as many assistants as are necessary to meet the demands of inquirers.

With such a head and a sufficient number of assistants in the central library, and with competent heads of branches, it is perfectly feasible to do this kind of work in connection with schools. Ordinary applications for information would be met at the branches, and difficult questions would have to be answered at the central library by the presentation of the inquirer there in person, or by conversation through telephones, connecting branches with the principal building. Nor need such service be very expensive. The officer having charge of this kind of work should be a cultivated man of somewhat exceptional qualifications, whose abilities and attainments command compensation equal, say, to the principal of the high school. It is easy, I know from experience, to train intelligent women who have had only a high school education, but who have some interest in books and pleasant manners, to do the ordinary work required in pointing out sources of information.

Questions of teachers and scholars recur, and having once been answered by the chief can be answered afterwards by his assistants.

It seems to me practicable to do even more of this kind of work in large cities, and to be perfectly feasible to invite the public generally to come to public libraries, every person with any question he may wish to ask that books will answer, for the purpose of having the best source of information adapted to his needs and capacity pointed out to him and placed in his hands. The number of inquirers will not be so great as to become unmanageable and swamp the facilities of libraries, but it will be large, and increasing gradually will have to be met by a gradually increasing force of assistants. I make these statements of my convictions after careful consideration of the subject, and after ten years of experience in conducting a library, with no mean success, on the plan recommended. The aim, bear in mind, is not to provide information to specialists, but to help people generally to get answers to questions which they feel interested in having answered.

I see no reason why in doing this kind of work a library in a large place could not, with very little difficulty, get great assistance from gentlemen outside of the corps of officers. Take Boston as an example. How easy it would be to interest a large number of the professors in the colleges and other educational institutions in and near the city, and of specialists in different departments of knowledge in professional life, or leading a life of study in comparative leisure, to allow questions to be put to them occasionally in regard to what book or books should be given to an inquirer when the general knowledge of the officers of the library with bibliographies at their command fails. Treat these gentlemen as men to whom you are indebted, and afford them graciously every privilege that can possibly be granted to students, and let them feel that they are an important factor in the management of the library, and I am sure that, leaving out the very selfish men who are found among scholars as well as among men in other occupations than study, a large corps of voluntary assistants could be found ready to render the small amount of gratuitous service needed of them in consideration of the consciousness that they were conferring a public benefit. Of course tact would have to be used at the library, and no unnecessary labor should be put on these men, and it should be without expense to them. The large libraries need and can have more coöperation in the selection of books and in the dissemina-

tion of knowledge. Are there not numbers of young specialists in large cities, and men of maturer years, who would delight to coöperate with the officers of a great library in making the institution an exchange for information, a great educational institution, a university for the people? Would not scholars at a distance allow themselves to be consulted occasionally for the benefit of inquirers in consideration of the privilege of occasionally asking themselves to have little investigations made, and in return for infrequent loans of books?

One word in regard to libraries in small towns, and I close. In such places persons interested in the schools are likely to feel an interest in the town library, and to be officially connected with it. School-committee men and teachers in small towns should see to it that a portion of the money appropriated in town meeting for the use of the library, is spent for books that teachers and scholars need to consult and use.



from
Samuel J. Green

SENSATIONAL FICTION IN PUBLIC LIBRARIES,

AND

PERSONAL RELATIONS

BETWEEN

LIBRARIANS AND READERS

SENSATIONAL FICTION IN PUBLIC LIBRARIES,

AND

PERSONAL RELATIONS

BETWEEN

LIBRARIANS AND READERS:

TWO PAPERS READ AT MEETINGS OF LIBRARIANS,

BY

SAMUEL S. GREEN,

LIBRARIAN OF THE FREE PUBLIC LIBRARY, WORCESTER, MASSACHUSETTS.

Worcester:

PRESS OF CHAS. HAMILTON,

CENTRAL EXCHANGE.

1879.

NOTE.

The second paper in this pamphlet is reprinted here because the original edition has become exhausted and librarians and others still desire to obtain copies of it. It was first printed in pamphlet form at the request of the Directors of the Free Public Library, Worcester, Massachusetts, who asked for its publication on the ground that "its general circulation would be of value as bringing to the notice of the community the work accomplished and methods pursued" in the Library in Worcester.

Both papers first appeared in the Library Journal.

CONSIDERATIONS CONCERNING THE DESIRABILITY OF HAVING SENSATIONAL FICTION IN PUBLIC LIBRARIES AND SOME PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS IN REGARD TO THE REGULATION OF THE USE OF NOVELS AND STORIES FOR THE YOUNG.

A PAPER READ AT THE THIRD GENERAL MEETING OF THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION, AT BOSTON, JULY 1, 1879.

WERE it necessary, it would be easy to show that good novels and stories for the young aid materially in the work of educating children and men, and that they are of great value on account of the power which lies in them of affording rational entertainment.

The mother reads to her boy Miss Edgeworth's account of the Little Merchants, and he learns that fair dealing is the dictate of prudence. She constructs a simple story to show what hideous things cruelty and meanness are, and the soft hearts of her children respond and feel impulses that help them to become tender and generous. A prized acquaintance of mine, who is a skilful educator and who has a family of children, tells me that he always keeps a well illustrated copy of *Æsop's Fables* lying around the nursery. When one copy wears out he replaces it with another. The pictures cultivate the taste and lead to inquiries as to what is said in explanation of them. Thus an opportunity is given to impart useful lessons in morality. The child sees that the boy who cried wolf when there was no wolf fared hard afterwards, because he had destroyed that confidence in his word

which would have brought him assistance when danger was really present.

An acquaintance tells me that the example of Hardy, the Servitor, in *Tom Brown at Oxford* had a powerful influence in forming the ideal which attracted him as he was entering upon the duties of manhood.

A distinguished clergyman of the Protestant Episcopal Church says, in a paper on *The Novel and its Influence upon Modern Life* read at the annual Congress held in Cincinnati last October: "For one, I may say that I would cheerfully drop out of my own past a good many influences that I value, sooner than lose those that came to me, some twenty years ago, from the writings of the late Charles Kingsley. What the author of '*Alton Locke*,' '*Yeast*' and '*Hypatia*' did for young men whose notions were taking to themselves form in those days, some one, no doubt, is doing for the same class now. It is a good, a gracious work, and he is blest who has the power to do it well."

It is to the best story-tellers that we owe the greater portion of what knowledge we have of the life led in other lands. Dickens in a *Tale of Two Cities* and Baring-Gould in *In Exitu Israel* (Gabrielle André) make us feel that the French common people were ground under foot by the clergy and nobles and that the French Revolution, horrible as were its incidents, was the natural result of such oppression. We read the *Conscript* and *Waterloo* by Erckmann-Chatrian and learn what thoughts and feelings agitated the hearts of Frenchmen and the incidents of their lives during the wars of Napoleon.

Admirable popular statements of the province of good novels in enabling us to enter into the life of men in foreign countries and engaged in occupations different from our own as well as in cultivating the imagination in other respects may be found in Professor Atkinson's excellent lecture on the *Right Use of Books* and in certain chapters of *Books and Reading* by Noah Porter, President of Yale College. It is

enough for me to say that comparatively few readers enjoy poetry and that if the imagination of people generally is to be cultivated it must be by means of good stories.

Thackeray and George Eliot give us a profound insight into the motives of human action and Dickens, although his pathos is sometimes "coarse and histrionic," has done a great work in awakening slumbering emotion and quickening healthy sympathy.

Every one who remembers the harmless enjoyment which he derived from reading *The Good Aunt*, *The Good French Governess*, *The Prussian Vase* and other stories by Miss Edgeworth, *The Crofton Boys* and *Feats on the Fiord* by Miss Martineau, *Masterman Ready* by Marryat or *De Foe's Robinson Crusoe* wishes his children to enjoy the same rational amusement. All are grateful for the hours of refreshing enjoyment found in the company of the heroes of Scott, Mrs. Gaskell, Mrs. Oliphant and William Black.

With these few remarks I take it for granted that nearly all librarians and friends of education consider novel reading desirable when the selection of books read is judicious and when the practice is indulged in only in moderation, and that it is not only harmless but very profitable for children to read story-books provided they are of the right kind and not used in excess.

A considerable portion, then, of the books in a popular library must be novels and stories if the institution is to do its whole work in a community.

It is well to state here, emphatically, that a town in establishing a library aims not only at giving instruction but seeks also to afford rational entertainment and that this purpose should be kept in mind in deciding how many stories should be put into it.

By common consent the governments of towns and cities spend money in beautifying parks and public gardens, in providing fountains, in making public buildings elegant and imposing, in furnishing music during summer evenings, in

affording pageants, regattas, fireworks, entertainments, on the Fourth of July and in other ways for things which are not absolutely necessary, with the avowed purpose of making the towns pleasant places to live in and life therein agreeable.

This is a dangerous principle to act upon habitually, and no one would countenance the doctrine if carried to the excess of making gratuitous distributions of corn as in ancient Rome, or of subsidizing theatres as in Paris and other cities of Europe to-day.

In the case of libraries it is held to be wise and proper to spend a moderate sum of money in encouraging citizens to read good books even although they only read for entertainment, and to use the facilities of institutions founded primarily to give instruction in promoting such a use of time as will tend to repress idleness and crime and afford rational entertainment.

Is it not particularly important to-day that the feeling of benevolence should become intense in individuals and communities and that the unquiet laborer should have it made clear to him that there is the disposition on the part of men who have money, to do every reasonable thing to secure his comfort and happiness?

Is it proper to have sensational novels and highly spiced stories for the young in public libraries?

Let it be understood at the start that no librarian would think of putting an immoral book into a library. For myself I would keep out of libraries books of the class which most of the novels of the woman who assumes the *nom de plume* of Ouida represent, on the ground that while not positively immoral they still leave a taint on a pure mind and a bad taste in the mouth. I would exclude translations of many French novels, because students of French literature and most other persons who ought to be allowed to read them find them accessible in the original. Such stories as Gautier's *Mademoiselle de Maupin* I would give out only with discrimination even in the *original*. I would place

certain restrictions on the use of the novels of Smollett and Fielding because while in many respects works of the first order it is best that the young should read only such books as preserve a certain reticence in regard to subjects freely talked and written about in the last century.

Let it be distinctly understood that no member of this association would think of buying for his library books such as those which are spoken of with condemnation by Professor William G. Sumner in the article *What our boys are reading*.

Although that excellent man, the late General William F. Bartlett, believed it was best to put Dime novels into public libraries I presume most of the ladies and gentlemen here present would consider it unnecessary to start the unintelligent reader even, with books of so low a grade. Dime novels be it understood are not immoral. The objection to them is that they are bloody and very exciting.

The question to which good men who have studied library economy give different answers, is whether such books as those of which the writings of William T. Adams (*"Oliver Optic"*) and Horatio Alger, Jr., are examples among books provided for the young and of Mrs. Southworth and Mrs. Hentz, among works wished for by older persons, ought to find a place in public libraries.

I reserve my own answer to this question until I have discussed the subject. Books of the kind referred to depend for their power to interest the reader upon the presence in them of accounts of startling incidents and not upon a description of the processes by which interesting conjunctions in life grow out of character or upon narration replete with fine imagination or delicate humor.

These books are not condemned, however, because they have an interesting plot, but because the incidents are startling and unnatural and the sole reliance of the writer for attracting readers. They have little literary merit and give us incorrect pictures of life.

This is a correct description of sensational novels and stories. They are poor books. Poor as they are, however, they have a work to do in the world. Many persons need them. They have been written by men who mean well. Mr. Adams is a member of the school committee of the city of Boston, and if I am rightly informed was for many years Superintendent of a Sunday School. Mr. Alger is a son of a clergyman, and himself a graduate of Harvard College and the Divinity School at Cambridge. Mr. Adams has stated in a letter which was made public several years ago, that he was moved to write stories for the young by the desire to provide them with more wholesome books than were available, and to keep them from the stories of pirates and highwaymen which formed a large part of the literature of young persons in his boyhood.

In carrying out his purpose it seems to me he has been measurably successful. There are many uneducated boys who need sensational stories. There are many unintellectual men and women who need sensational novels. Intellectual men like this kind of reading when they are tired or sick.

I feel grateful to Charles Reade and Dion Boucicault, that when suffering from an attack of rheumatic fever they enabled me to forget my pains while listening to the stirring chapters of their novel of *Foul Play*.

I remember that the tone of my system was at one time so low, that it was pleasant for me to find an occupation in reading the parts of the *Gun Maker of Moscow*, by Sylvanus Cobb, Jr., as they appeared in successive numbers of the *New-York Ledger*.

There are classes in the community of grown up persons and of children who require exciting stories if they are to read at all, and there are times in every man's life when he craves such books and when it is well for him to read them.

Such exciting stories as are found in the circulating departments of our libraries do good in two ways. They

keep men and women and boys from worse reading. I heard a year or two ago of the formation of a club among some boys to buy Dime novels, copies of the Police Gazette and other books and periodicals from a railroad stall or newsroom. Now I felt very sure that if these boys had not been considered too young to take books from the public library, but had been allowed to read the stories of Messrs. Alger and Adams, that they would have been contented with these books and not have sought worse reading.

It came to my knowledge about the same time that a girl carried with her to a school of the Society of Friends where only serious reading was allowed, a trunk, the bottom of which was lined with dime novels. These were passed around clandestinely among the scholars and read by a large portion of them. In order to keep boys and girls from reading such books as Professor Sumner rightly condemns we must give them interesting books that are better. But sensational books in the circulating departments of our public libraries do good in another way. They give young persons a taste for reading. It is certainly better for certain classes of persons to read exciting stories than to be doing what they would be doing if not reading. It is better to repress idleness in persons, the lower part of whose nature is sure to be awakened if they are not pleasantly employed. It certainly is a benefit done to such persons to enable them to grow up with a love of reading, even although they will read only sensational books and their taste does not improve in regard to the selection of books. But the taste of many persons does improve. You smile as I make this assertion. It is becoming fashionable to sneer when the librarian says that the boy who begins with reading exciting books comes afterwards to enjoy a better class of literature. There is truth in the statement, nevertheless. A boy begins by reading Alger's books. He goes to school. His mind matures. He outgrows the books that pleased him as a boy. If boys and girls grow up with a dislike of reading or without feel-

ing attracted towards this occupation they will not read anything. But if a love of reading has been cultivated by giving them when young such books as they enjoy reading then they will turn naturally to reading as an employment of their leisure and will read such books as correspond to the grade of culture and the stage of intellectual development reached by them. They will thus be saved from idleness and vice.

I have no doubt that harm comes to some young persons from reading the books of Oliver Optic, and I know that a great deal of time is wasted in reading them. Boys occasionally run away from home, influenced by reading them. The boys described in these books are not boys but prodigies. It is easy for them to run a steamboat through a dangerous channel and they are capable business men and bank officers. These books are likely to leave the impression upon the minds of the young that they can get along by themselves without the support and guidance of parents and friends. But I take it comparatively few persons are deceived by these books while the great bulk of readers get from them merely the enjoyment of the story. Perhaps there is no book that the average Irish boy likes better than one of Mr. Alger's stories. Now such a boy is likely to learn that his powers are subject to limitations and not be led by these books to feel an overweening self-reliance.

I have no doubt that girls sometimes get wrong notions from reading such novels as are to be found in our libraries and are led to do in consequence very silly or bad things; but I fear that such persons are so weak that if they did not read novels they would become, without the occupation of reading, a prey to much worse pursuits.

So much for the advantages which flow from the use of sensational novels and stories. If so great as represented, is it best to restrict their use? Certainly. It is important to raise up the ignorant and vicious. It is important, also, that in doing this good work we do as little harm as possible to boys and girls who are bright and better educated and who have been brought up well.

I feel no great concern in regard to grown-up persons whose minds are somewhat mature and whose habits are fixed. But I do feel much anxiety in regard to the young.

The great difficulty in this matter is to make such arrangements that every class of readers will get the best books they will read and that such persons will be kept from poor books as would be satisfied with good ones if more exciting reading of a lower grade were not readily accessible.

Shall we put sensational novels and stories into popular libraries?

It will not do to say that we should leave out stories of this kind prepared for the young, but put in novels for older persons, for it is these very novels, the writings of Mrs. Southworth and Mrs. Holmes, that our girls read.

I presume that nearly all the librarians present believe that it is best that somewhere or other sensational stories should be accessible in many towns. There are some towns where, it seems to me, the population is such that the people would be very well satisfied with a library which left out sensational books or which put on to its shelves only a very few books of this kind.

When called upon recently to select a few hundred dollars worth of books for young persons in such a town, I did not put on the list a single book by Adams, Alger, Kellogg, Mayne Reid, Fosdick ("Castlemon"), or any other sensational writer for the young. Had there been a great shoe-shop or cotton factory in the town for whose people I was providing books, and sensational works of a good quality had not been elsewhere accessible to operatives, I should have put a small supply of the books of the authors just mentioned into the library.

The best thing to do in such a case, however, is, it seems to me, to have a branch library supplied with a considerable proportion of exciting stories in the factory itself or in the part of the town where the operatives live and keep the main library almost free from sensational literature. The pro-

prietors of shops and factories would subscribe liberally, I think, towards the establishment and maintenance of such collections and allow officers of the corporations to act as assistant-librarians. I apprehend these libraries could be made acceptable to readers even if a considerable portion of the stories in them were of a comparatively high order. Thus Trowbridge's *Neighbor Jackwood*, Miss Yonge's *Heir of Redcliffe*, *Mary Barton* by Mrs. Gaskell, are enjoyed by simple readers.

Should not the demagogue interfere it seems to me that a similar policy could be pursued in large cities and that branch libraries might be established in such wards as need highly spiced literature containing many books of this kind, and thus other readers be kept from wasting their time in reading books which, although civilizing in the case of some readers, are not good enough for them.

It is understood, of course, that persons using branch libraries should have the privilege of taking books from the central repository also.

I understand that there have been no complaints from the inhabitants of Jamaica Plain, because but few sensational books, for grown-up persons, are to be found in their branch of the Boston Public Library. Books of this kind are very much needed, however, in such places as Lynn and Lawrence. A superintendent of a mission Sunday school tells me that he finds Mr. Adams's books valuable in doing the work he has to do. It is wrong, however, to put sensational books into Sunday school libraries when the children come from families whose members enjoy a higher class of literature.

Why should not special library facilities be afforded associations of newsboys and other guilds when they have headquarters where the city could have branch libraries or depositories of books? Why should not philanthropically disposed citizens be invited to supply such libraries, to be selected by competent persons?

Until, however, arrangements are made to supply the

wants of different classes of citizens separately, or when in towns or cities it seems impracticable to make them it would seem best to keep the supply of sensational novels and stories very low in our libraries, and to bring to public attention and use ourselves the means at hand for regulating their use. I have not for years left any place on the shelves of the library in Worcester for Mrs. Southworth's books, always taking care to have the supply of this author's writings fall far behind the demand. I am now pursuing the same policy in regard to other sensational books written for men, women, and children.

But, it will be asked, what are you going to put in the place of those books which you reject?

Readers demand interesting reading and men and women who pay taxes have a certain right to insist that books which please them should be bought for their use and for that of their children. Many persons, too, who read poor books believe that they are good and this notwithstanding they know that cultivated readers differ from them in opinion.

I mean to put interesting books into libraries and to keep a large body of readers satisfied. I am convinced, however, that there are a great many good stories for the young and novels for older persons.

I have come to the conclusion that we can get enough good stories and novels for our libraries.

One of the most valuable aids which the librarian may avail himself of in selecting books for the young seems to me to be the different catalogues issued by the Ladies' Commission here in Boston. The ladies who compose this commission read all books for the young that they think will prove suitable reading and base their recommendations upon actual knowledge of their contents. They are women of high culture and good judgment and the results of their work are very valuable. They work, it is true, primarily in the interests of Sunday schools and largely in the interests of the schools of a single denomination. But they publish separate lists of

books and all persons are enabled to select such works as they desire whatever may be their denominational connections and even if they have no denominational connection whatever. I should be the last person to recommend to the librarians of public libraries the use of catalogues put forth by the publishers of Sunday school books as aids in making selections for town or city libraries. But from actual use of the catalogues of the Ladies' Commission I have learned their value and feel that I cannot use too strong language in recommending them to your consideration. Indeed I wish that these same good women or others like them would undertake to read novels published for grown up people and print frequently lists of such as they find good or harmless.

I think I can assure them of the hearty coöperation of the Library Association in doing this work and that the Library Journal would be only too glad to print their lists. In fact I think the Library Association will not long remain inactive in this field, for the executive committee sees the importance of doing this kind of work and will not defer its performance if their proposed catalogue of selected books is freely subscribed for.

In using the catalogues of the Ladies' Commission it is important to remember that this organization seeks to provide books especially for children brought up under refining influences and that were the ladies who compose it aiming to provide for the needs of public libraries they would use a little more latitude in the selection of books.

Perhaps, also, the fact that gentlemen do not aid in making out the lists limits somewhat their value. They are not recommended, however, for exclusive use.

Mr. Perkins's Best Reading and the supplementary periodical called the Library Companion give much assistance in selecting good novels.

Of great value in this respect are Mr. Winsor's Chronological Index to Historical Fiction and the annotated Lists of Additions issued by the Boston Athenæum. The new cata-

logue of choice books to be issued by this association will be invaluable to many libraries in helping their officers to make judicious selections of works in the department of light literature. Then we have the best literary papers and periodicals to refer to. These will continue the main reliance of the officers of the larger libraries when seeking for information in regard to new books, even after long lists of desirable works shall have been promptly published under the auspices of the association or otherwise.

Having replaced the poor stories in our libraries with good ones and having ascertained that the quality of its imaginative literature is as high as it can be and yet retain readers, the next step to take is to lead the young away from an immoderate use of the best stories even, to books of other kinds.

Mr. Winsor's lists, the one already mentioned and the annotated catalogue of the books in the Lower Hall of the Boston Public Library of the classes of History, Biography and Travel afford much assistance in doing this work.

The new catalogue of the association in aiming to extend the work done in the latter list to the literature of various branches of knowledge by giving in compact form a good selection of books and numerous explanatory notes will be of great service.

I would also have in every library a friend of the young whom they can consult freely when in want of assistance and who in addition to the power of gaining their confidence has knowledge and tact enough to render them real aid in making selections.

It is evident that librarians are much interested in the work of raising the standard of reading. Nearly all of their annual reports which come to me have remarks on this subject. Some librarians issue once or twice a year lists of the more desirable of the recent additions and scatter these about the library rooms and distribute them among readers. Would not added value be given to these lists were notes to be

printed under the titles calling attention to attractive features in the books? Other librarians are on the point of publishing catalogues of such choice books in their collections as it is most desirable for readers to use, for the guidance of parents, teachers and young persons themselves. Some of the libraries in Philadelphia following the lead of Mr. Cutter join in issuing frequent lists of accessions liberally enriched by selected notes. Two libraries, the Free Public Library of Worcester and the Young Men's Library of Buffalo, have availed themselves of the very generous offer of the Boston Athenæum to have printed at its library building, annotated lists of their new books similar to those issued by the Athenæum to its own stockholders. The cost to the associated libraries is very small and the results secured of great value. I would remind librarians that they may often do a good work for readers by bringing them into connection with the Society to Encourage Studies at Home which has its headquarters here in Boston. The officers of this society stand ready to correspond with young ladies, to give them advice in regard to reading and study, to provide them with lists of books to use, and in some cases to lend at a trifling charge books needed but not readily attainable when desired. The titles of the books in their circulars and on their working lists and the well known energy and attainments of the ladies and gentlemen who constitute this organization are guarantees that the work done under its supervision is of a high order. A librarian may do much good with little trouble to himself by selecting every morning from the books in the library ten or twenty volumes one of which may be given by an assistant to any one who asks to have an interesting book picked out for him.

It would be a great boon to the more studiously inclined, but not especially well informed frequenters of a library, to form classes from among them to be taken to the alcoves by the librarian or others for conversation about the literature of different departments of knowledge.

The present time seems to me particularly propitious for raising the standard of the literature in our libraries. Small sums of money, only, are now voted by town and city governments and we are justified in spending nearly all that can be afforded us for new books. During the last two or three years as volumes containing exciting stories and novels have worn out I have not replaced them in the library under my charge and I am now beginning to put into it a considerable supply of good stories not already there or duplicates of the best books of this class now on our shelves. Again, many of the libraries have been established a number of years and have come to have a large body of readers who are using them for their primary purpose of education. We can now retain a strong hold on the community and yet raise the standard of books circulated.

My experience in the reference department of the library in Worcester is instructive. I refer you to the last annual report (the nineteenth) for statistics. This shows that out of 30,079 volumes given to readers for use within the library building last year at least 25,000 were used for purposes of study or serious reading, and also, this being the fact which is particularly interesting in connection with the subject now under consideration, that in eight years an immense change has taken place in the character of the books used by readers. Formerly a large portion of the persons coming to the library used the reference department as a room in which to look at illustrated papers and read stories. Now readers of this class cannot be accommodated and while there is an immense increase in the number of volumes given to readers and in the number of users of the room the use of this department is now almost exclusively, as stated before, for study and serious reading. I introduce this illustration to show that a community can be brought to make a large use of both circulating and reference libraries for the best purposes for which they are provided and that after a

time at least the support which is afforded by the readers of sensational literature can be largely disregarded.

It is necessary, of course, to interest large portions of the community in our libraries. Failing in this we can show no good reason for our existence, and the same clamor will arise in regard to us that is sometimes heard concerning high schools that only the children of a few taxpayers receive benefit in their operation.

But even in starting a library much may be done to popularize its use by having a well supplied reading-room attached to it and by putting into it a sufficient number of books selected with a careful regard for the interests of the community for which provision is made. Put in too an abundance of good novels and stories which rely on incident for their power to interest. Buy as few as possible of sensational books.

Much may be done in school to create and stimulate the taste for good reading. But it would be discourteous and superfluous for me to give advice to teachers in regard to this matter. At the best I could only emphasize the admirable suggestions in regard to instruction in English Literature and History and the hints concerning the exercise of Reading contained in School Documents Nos. 17 and 29, 1877, and 21, 1878, issued by the Supervisors of Schools in Boston.

I would advise all teachers who do not now see that their power is practically unlimited to awaken interests in the young that will lead them to read and study good books throughout their lives, to read the above named Documents and a lecture by Charles Francis Adams, Jr., Esq., delivered in Quincy, and entitled "On the use which could be made of the Public Library of the town in connection with the school system in general, and more particularly with the high and upper grade grammar schools." This lecture was published originally in the Quincy Patriot and was subsequently printed in a condensed form in the Library Journal,

vol. 1, pp. 437-41.* May I also refer inquirers to a paper in the second number of the same volume of the Library Journal entitled "Personal Relations between Librarians and Readers"? I received so many kindly worded letters from friends of education after the appearance of this paper and its publication was received with so much satisfaction by newspapers in Boston and New York, that I venture to hope that although prepared primarily as an address to librarians it contains views and suggestions which teachers would like to become familiar with.

There are some teachers who keep little collections of books for the sake of having them to lend to scholars. There are many schools which have permanent libraries within the buildings in which they are kept. Are there not many others that would do well to procure such libraries?

Why should not all of the public schools, those for the younger as well as the older scholars, become depositories of books belonging to towns and cities and every head of a school become an assistant-librarian, sending to the libraries for a limited number of such books as are desired and changing them as often as should be thought desirable? With facilities now at hand to aid in the selection of books the librarian and teacher acting in concert could do an immense work in procuring the perusal of good books and in keeping the young from poor or hurtful literature.

It is my place to invite teachers to come to libraries and to assure them of the hearty coöperation of librarians in doing any good work they may undertake. Mr. Adams suggests that teachers come to libraries themselves with scholars and help them to select books on such subjects as they become interested in.

In Worcester teachers send scholars in very large numbers to the librarian for this kind of information.

*Messrs. Estes & Lauriat of Boston, have recently published for Mr. Adams a pamphlet entitled *The Public Library and the Common Schools*, which contains this and two other valuable papers on educational topics.

Think what a work may be done to awaken a longing for investigation and to stimulate boys and girls to read and study when both teachers and librarians are capable and interested in their work.

Teachers should have good catalogues, and annotated lists of new books at hand. There should be in every school-house a copy of the catalogue of selected books soon to be issued by the Library Association. Let me suggest to school boards to subscribe at once for a number of copies of this much needed compendium and thus secure its immediate publication.

"Talk with scholars and find out what they are reading," says Professor Northrop. Yes, do so. Let your motto, however, in doing this kind of work be "regulation" not "prohibition."

When the coming man appears who in coöperation with the trustees and librarian of the Public Library in this city can bring about what I know some of them wish and what I presume the authorities of the schools desire also, namely, a close connection between the administrators of Bates Hall and the schools of the place and who has, moreover, the power to attract to the library all persons here in Boston who have questions to ask that books will give answers to, then that institution, now perhaps the best repository of tools in the land will become one of the busiest workshops in the world and there will come up from the people a demand which cannot be disregarded for the construction of that much needed new building which the officers of the library desire in order that this great popular work may not be impeded for want of room, and there will go out from that institution an impulse that will affect for good the administration of the libraries of New England and the United States, yes of England and France, may I not say of the civilized world.

May I make a single suggestion to teachers which I do not remember to have seen in print? If scholars are read-

ing books which you consider unwholesome why not procure copies of these very works and use them as reading-books in day and Sunday schools, and turning the children into critics and guiding them in their criticisms lead them to see how trashy these stories are as pictures of life, and how defective in the use of the English language.

One more suggestion. Suppose a boy to be greedy to read Cooper's novels, is it difficult for a good teacher to excite in him an interest to know about real Indians and naval heroes? Could you not pick out for him exciting passages from the works of Francis Parkman and interest him in the life of the apostle Eliot, or stimulate a desire to discuss the question of the treatment of Indians by civilized men or to know about uncivilized men in other countries, in the one case, and in the other turn the sea-struck inquirer to the lives of Foote and Farragut and Nelson, or to Dana's *Two Years before the Mast* or some simple work on practical seamanship?

In concluding let me give you an anecdote. I have once in this essay referred to a practice of Mr. E. Harlow Russell, Principal of the State Normal School at Worcester, although I did not mention his name. Professor Russell tells me the following story: One of his sons expressed a desire to read some Dime novels. He told him that if he really wished to read some of these books he would take him to a railway stand and they would buy one or two and read them together, "but," said he, to the boy, "there is another book that I think you would like just as well. Suppose we were to read together '*A tour on the Prairies*' from the *Crayon Miscellany* by Washington Irving." The son had confidence in his father's judgment and assented to the suggestion. They read the better book together to the enjoyment and improvement of both. The method of one judicious Educator and parent is adduced as an example for others.

THE DESIRABLENESS OF ESTABLISHING PERSONAL INTERCOURSE AND RELATIONS BETWEEN LIBRARIAN AND READERS IN POPULAR LIBRARIES.

A PAPER READ AT THE CONFERENCE OF LIBRARIANS HELD IN PHILADELPHIA, OCTOBER 4TH, 5TH AND 6TH, 1876.

WHEN scholars and persons of high social position come to a library, they have confidence enough in regard to the cordiality of their reception, to make known their wishes without timidity or reserve.

Modest men in the humbler walks of life, and well-trained boys and girls, need encouragement before they become ready to say freely what they want. A hearty reception by a sympathizing friend, and the recognition of some one at hand who will listen to inquiries, even although he may consider them unimportant, make it easy for such persons to ask questions, and put them at once on a home footing.

Persons who use a popular library for purposes of investigation generally need a great deal of assistance. A few illustrations will produce a vivid realization of the correctness of this statement:

Here, for instance, is a wall painter who has a room to ornament. He wishes to assist his imagination, and comes to the library to look at specimens of decorative painting.

It does not serve the purpose of such a man to send him to the catalogues of the library, and bid him select the books he desires. You must make the selection yourself,—get the works he needs and hand them to him. You have several to select from. Shall you give him “Jones’s Grammar of Ornament,” or “Racinet’s L’Ornement Polychrome?”

Certainly if he wishes merely suggestion and inspiration, and to look only at details of ornamentation. These works contain examples of the best ornamentation in vogue in different ages and countries, and show the workman who aims at perfection, what he has to attain to.

Generally speaking, however, the work represented in these books is too elaborate for common use, is hard to execute, and would cost more than a householder is willing to spend in ornamenting a room.

The painter wishes, also, to see details in combination, and to judge of colors and figures in juxtaposition, by looking upon the representation of a whole wall or room. His want is met best by giving him volumes of some such approved works as "*Architektonisches Skizzenbuch*," or the "*Journal-Manuel de Peintures*."

An artisan has the legs of a table to carve. His imagination is momentarily barren, and he desires assistance. You do not ask him what book he would like to see, but get him "*Liénard's Spécimens de la Décoration et de L'Ornementation*," "*Talbert's Gothic Forms*," "*Ungewitter's Gothischen Möbeln*," or pictorial representations of such specimens of the work of Eastlake and Morris as you can lay your hands on.

A marble worker calls for an engraving of a lion in some specified posture; a wood carver wishes to see a representation of an eagle. You take the time that is necessary to hunt up whatever these men desire to see.

A member of a society of Englishmen wishes to find a particular representation of the contest between St. George and the Dragon. You request an assistant to look through the tables of contents of the *London Art Journal*, and by this means very likely find what is wanted.

A school-girl has heard that the number of feet in a yard measure was determined by the length of some king's arm. She asks for the name of the king. Catalogues fail to show where the information is to be found. It at once occurs to

the librarian, however, that answers to such questions can usually be had by reference to "Notes and Queries." He sends for the indexes of this periodical, and finds the information desired. In handing the needed volume to the inquirer, he takes a minute to caution her that there are many stories and traditions which it will not do to accept as facts, without careful examination of the evidence adduced in their corroboration. The librarian utters a similar timely word of caution when asked about other historical stories of doubtful credibility, when called upon, for instance, to give an account of Captain Smith and Pocahontas, or of the Blue Laws of Connecticut.

A school-boy calls for a history of the Suez Canal. You see at once, probably, that what he needs is a brief account, and refer him to some recently issued encyclopædia. At the same time you show him how to use dictionaries and encyclopædias, and tell him he can often find answers to questions himself by using works of this kind, but invite him to come to you whenever he encounters snags, or fails to get the information sought after.

Another school-girl wishes to see a description of the ceremony of the marriage of the Adriatic. If the librarian remembers in what book such a description may be found, he has the book brought. Otherwise he sends for a dozen volumes about Venice, and teaches the inquirer how to find the desired account by the use of indexes and tables of contents. Very likely she will give up the search without finding it. Then you take hold to aid her, and show her how to use books, and obtain information when wanted.

A citizen is building a house which he wishes to protect against injury from lightning. He is subjected to the customary visits of the venders of lightning-rods, and becomes somewhat confused by the conflicting statements of these practical men, or is impressed by the conviction that some of these worthies display great ignorance of the scientific grounds upon which their opinions rest. He is crowded by

business, but still glad to spend a single hour in a library, if in that length of time he can become acquainted with the views of some of the best writers on the applications of electricity, and so enable himself to proceed understandingly to the work in hand.

In such a case, of course, the librarian must get the books which contain the desired information, and hand them to the reader open at the proper pages.

Another business man wishes for certain statistics of trade, manufactures and inventions. He has no time to spare in collecting the books he desires. He does not know how to get hold of them so well as a librarian does. He states his wants, and the librarian sends to the secretaries of organizations having the interests of different manufactures in keeping, to get the latest published statistics relating to silk or wool manufactures, or the production of iron and steel and other commodities. The inquirer is also furnished with the volumes containing the record of the census, and with other publications of the bureaus of our government, and is supplied with such compendiums as the "Statesman's Year Book," "Timbs's Wonderful Inventions," and the volume containing the papers recently printed in Harper's Magazine which treat of the progress of the United States during the last one hundred years, in mechanics, commerce and manufactures.

Men who consult the reports of the Commissioner of Patents, in order to see the specifications and drawings of different patented articles, may frequently be greatly aided by a word from the librarian. Almost all investigators are glad to have their labors shortened by availing themselves of assistance. The librarian knows, for instance, just what indexes of patents have been published, when the reports ceased coming in the old form, what drawings have been issued by the office at Washington, and wherein the incompleteness of a set of reports lies, and how its deficiencies may be supplied.

A young man has just become a member of a debating society, and is called upon to discuss such questions as the advisableness of taxing church property, the comparative value of the systems of prohibition and license in the treatment of the vice of intemperance, and the wisdom of placing the management of railroads in the hands of the State, or of continuing the use of the Bible in the opening exercises of public schools.

Such a person is kept from discouragement in his early attempts to get at information, if he can avail himself of the aid of some one who stands by to show him where to find the legislative reports, pamphlets and editorials which contain discussions of these questions. The assistance he receives gives him confidence to pursue further investigations. The librarian, too, in his intercourse with him, reminds him that, in order to become a successful debater, he must always consider both sides of a question, and weigh the arguments of opponents.

A small boy wishes to see a description of the eggs of different New England birds. The librarian knows of some good work with colored illustrations, to give him. A somewhat older boy wants to know how to build a boat, and is furnished with book, magazine article, or papers which contain the necessary directions.

Some inquirer has heard that there was a day in the last century, during a large portion of which the obscuration of the sun was so great, that it is known in tradition as the Dark Day. He wishes to know the date of this day, and to find a description of it.

Perhaps it puzzles the librarian to tell where to look for the desired description. He begins a search, however, and in half an hour or so unearths the account from some town history, say that of Newbury, Newburyport and West Newbury, by Coffin.

A curious woman asked me a few months since to give her a book which would show what the "scallop" is. This,

you will remember, is an article of food which appears in considerable quantities in our markets. It was only after an hour's search, that I found out from "Verrill and Smith's Invertebrate Animals of Vineyard Sound and Adjacent Waters, etc.," that it is the "central muscle which closes the valves" of a certain shell.

A reservoir dam gives way. Citizens become suspicious that too little care is taking in making the repairs. You drop a line to the chairman of the proper committee of the city government, to say that you have just received "Humber's Water Supply of Towns" from London. He calls for the work, and takes it home to study.

An unlearned student wishes to know something about the families of languages, or the recent explanations of the origin of mythology. You pick out for him some simple hand-book on the subject.

"Is it true," inquires a young lady, "that the little bust we see so often, which is generally called Clyte, should be called Clytie?" The librarian answers "Yes." "Isn't the sentence 'God tempers the wind to the shorn lamb' in the Bible?" asks another. The librarian answers "No," and refers for further information to "Bartlett's Familiar Quotations."

One inquirer has to be told which is the best atlas to use in looking for places in Servia; another, which will give most accurately and with greatest minuteness, the situation of the rivers and battle-fields mentioned in current accounts of Indian hostilities.

A citizen is about to emigrate, and desires a late description of the State and town to which he intends to move. A board of trade is discussing the question of the advisableness of introducing the metric system of weights and measures into common use. Members call upon librarians to furnish the best treatises on the subject.

A young man about to make the voyage to India for his health asks you to give him a list of books to read while on

shipboard. Another person wishes a similar list for use in a summer vacation.

The librarian is often consulted about courses of reading, and his judgment in regard to what are the best epitomes of the histories of different countries and of different branches of knowledge, is frequently sought for.

When an inquirer has satisfied himself that a book recommended will suit him, he often wishes to buy it, and the librarian tells him its cost, and where it can be procured.

A student in a technical school wishes aid in selecting the subject of a thesis, and in gathering materials to use in preparing it. A school-boy asks for hints and information to use in writing a composition.

A librarian is frequently asked to give information in regard to things and processes which he knows nothing about. Perhaps he is called upon to produce a description of an object, the name of which is unknown to him. I remember slyly consulting a dictionary to find out what a "cam" is, and again for the definition of "link valve motion."

But having acquired a definite notion of the object concerning which information is desired, the habit of mental classification which a librarian acquires so readily, comes to his aid. He sees at once in what department of knowledge the description sought for may be found, and brings to the inquirer authoritative treatises in this department.

Enough illustrations have been given to show that readers in popular libraries need a great deal of assistance. Care has been taken to select principally such as show that this is particularly needed by persons unused to handling books or conducting investigations. In the case of such persons, as well as with scholars, it is practicable to refer applicants for information which you cannot supply, to libraries in larger cities in the neighborhood of your own library, or to other institutions in your own town. Business men go to commercial centres so often that they can occasionally con-

sult larger libraries than those accessible at home. It would be easy to show that scholars, as well as unlearned persons, receive much aid in pursuing their studies from an accomplished librarian, although he has not the knowledge of a specialist. It would make this paper too long, however, to illustrate this part of the subject.

There are obvious limits to the assistance which a librarian can undertake to render. Common sense will dictate them. Thus no librarian would take the responsibility of recommending books to give directions for the treatment of disease. Nor would he give legal advice, nor undertake to instruct applicants in regard to the practical manipulations of the workshop or the laboratory.

I have not been unmindful, in what has been said, of the great value of the assistance rendered readers by certain catalogues which have been issued lately. There is little danger of appreciating too highly such work as that for which we are indebted to Mr. Noyes, Mr. Cutter, and Mr. Winsor and his able assistants.

I need not remind you, however, that many persons who use a library, have to be instructed in regard to the use of catalogues, and need practice before they can use them to the best advantage. Entries are overlooked. Discrimination is lacking for separating good books from those of little merit, and books adapted to the capacity and particular needs of the user from those which are unsuited to his requirements.

It frequently happens, also, that readers do not know under what general subject to look for a minute piece of information. Lately constructed catalogues are so made as to facilitate immensely the researches, not only of scholars, but of the general, unlearned reader.

When the admirable notes, found in some of the catalogues of the Boston Public Library, and in the catalogue of the library at Quincy, Massachusetts, shall have been increased in numbers, and made to include information in

regard to the literature of all branches of knowledge, they will, particularly if kept up to date, be found of inestimable service by the general reader and inexperienced student.

But the time is distant when the whole field of knowledge can be covered by these notes; and even when it shall be occupied, much personal assistance will still be needed by readers in popular libraries. Of course, too, it will always be necessary for a librarian to extend to readers the hospitalities of his institution.

Among the good results which attend personal intercourse on the part of the librarian with users of popular libraries, the following may be mentioned:—

1st. If you gain the respect and confidence of readers, and they find you easy to get at and pleasant to talk with, great opportunities are afforded of stimulating the love of study, and of directing investigators to the best sources of information.

2d. You find out what books the actual users of the library need, and your judgment improves in regard to the kind of books it is best to add to it. You see what subjects the constituency of the institution are interested in, and what is the degree of simplicity they require in the presentation of knowledge.

3d. One of the best means of making a library *popular* is to mingle freely with its users, and help them in every way. When this policy is pursued for a series of years in any town, a very large portion of the citizens receive answers to questions, and the conviction spreads through the community that the library is an institution of such beneficent influences that it cannot be dispensed with.

4th and last. The collections of books which make up the contents of the circulating departments of our libraries have been provided for the use of persons of differing degrees of refinement and moral susceptibility, and for those who occupy mental planes of various altitudes.

Now the policy advocated of freedom of intercourse

between librarian and readers, when adopted in the conduct of these departments, does much to give efficiency to the efforts of the officers to get readers to take out wholesome books, and such works as are adapted to their capacity and the grade of enlightenment to which they belong.

It is a common practice, as we all know, for users of a library to ask the librarian or his assistants to select stories for them. I would have great use made of this disposition. Place in the circulating department one of the most accomplished persons in the corps of your assistants—some cultivated woman, for instance, who heartily enjoys works of the imagination, but whose taste is educated. She must be a person of pleasant manners, and, while of proper dignity, ready to unbend, and of social disposition. It is well if there is a vein of philanthropy in her composition. Instruct this assistant to consult with every person who asks for help in selecting books.

This should not be her whole work, for work of this kind is best done when it has the appearance of being performed incidentally. Let the assistant, then, have some regular work, but such employment as she can at once lay aside when her aid is asked for in picking out books to read. I am confident that in some such way as this a great influence can be exerted in the direction of causing good books to be used.

The person placed in charge of this work must have tact, and be careful not to attempt too much. If an applicant would cease to consult her unless she gives him a sensational novel, I would have her give him such a book. Only let her aim at providing every person who applies for aid with the best book he is willing to read.

Personal intercourse and relations between librarian and readers are useful in all libraries. It seems to me that in popular libraries they are indispensable.

Six years ago I was a member of the board of directors

of the Free Public Library of the City of Worcester, Massachusetts. At that time I noticed that its reference department was hardly used at all, and was fast becoming an unpopular institution. During the last five or six years, by the adoption of the means recommended in this paper, a large use of this department has grown up, and it has come to be highly appreciated in the community. It is because an interesting experience in the Worcester library has led me to place a high value upon personal intercourse between librarian and readers, that I have ventured to call your attention to the subject in the paper I am now reading.

Certain mental qualities are requisite or desirable in library officers who mingle with readers. Prominent among these is a courteous disposition, which will disclose itself in agreeable manners. Sympathy, cheerfulness and patience are needful. Enthusiasm is as productive of good results here as elsewhere. A librarian should be as unwilling to allow an inquirer to leave the library with his question unanswered, as a shopkeeper is to have a customer go out of his store without making a purchase.

Receive investigators with something of the cordiality displayed by an old-time inn-keeper. Hold on to them until they have obtained the information they are seeking, and show a persistency in supplying their wants similar to that manifested by a successful clerk in effecting a sale.

It is important to have a democratic spirit in dealing with readers in popular libraries. The librarian is not, of course, to overlook the neglect of deference which is due him, or to countenance in any way the error which prevails to a considerable extent in this country, that, because artificial distinctions of rank have been abolished here, there need be no recognition of the real differences among men in respect to taste, intellect and character.

But he runs little risk in placing readers on a footing of equality with himself. The superiority of his culture will

always enable him to secure the respectful treatment which belongs to him when confronted by impudence or conceit. What is needed in the librarian is a ready sympathy with rational curiosity, by whomsoever manifested, and a feeling of pleasure in brightening any glimmerings of desire that appear in lowly people to grow in culture or become better informed in regard to the scientific principles which underlie the processes of their daily occupations.

In personal intercourse with readers, there are certain mental tendencies which should be restrained. Idle curiosity is one of them. Many scholars prefer to pursue their studies privately, and are annoyed if they think they are observed. Respect reticence. If you approach a reader with the purpose of aiding him, and find him unwilling to admit you to his confidence, regard his wishes and allow him to make investigations by himself.

Be careful not to make inquirers dependent. Give them as much assistance as they need, but try, at the same time, to teach them to rely upon themselves and become independent.

Avoid scrupulously the propagation of any particular set of views in politics, art, history, philosophy or theology.

"Tros Tyriusque mihi nullo discrimine agetur" are words which Virgil puts into the mouth of Queen Dido. The North American Review has adopted them as its motto. The promise they contain is one that should be kept by the librarian also.

The librarian who uses his position to make proselytes, prostitutes his calling. State the mental tendencies and the characteristics of disputants, but do not become their advocates.

If a reader asks for your own views regarding some matter about which there is controversy, give them to him if you choose. Decline to give them if you choose. Remind him, however, in either case, that if he wishes to have an opinion

of his own, he must study the subject in its different aspects, and form one for himself. Say gently to immature persons, that they cannot expect to have opinions upon profound controverted questions, and that they must wait until they grow in knowledge, and until their reasoning powers develop, before their views on such matters will be of value.

Avoid religiously the practice of cramming the minds of young inquirers with one-sided views in regard to questions in dispute.

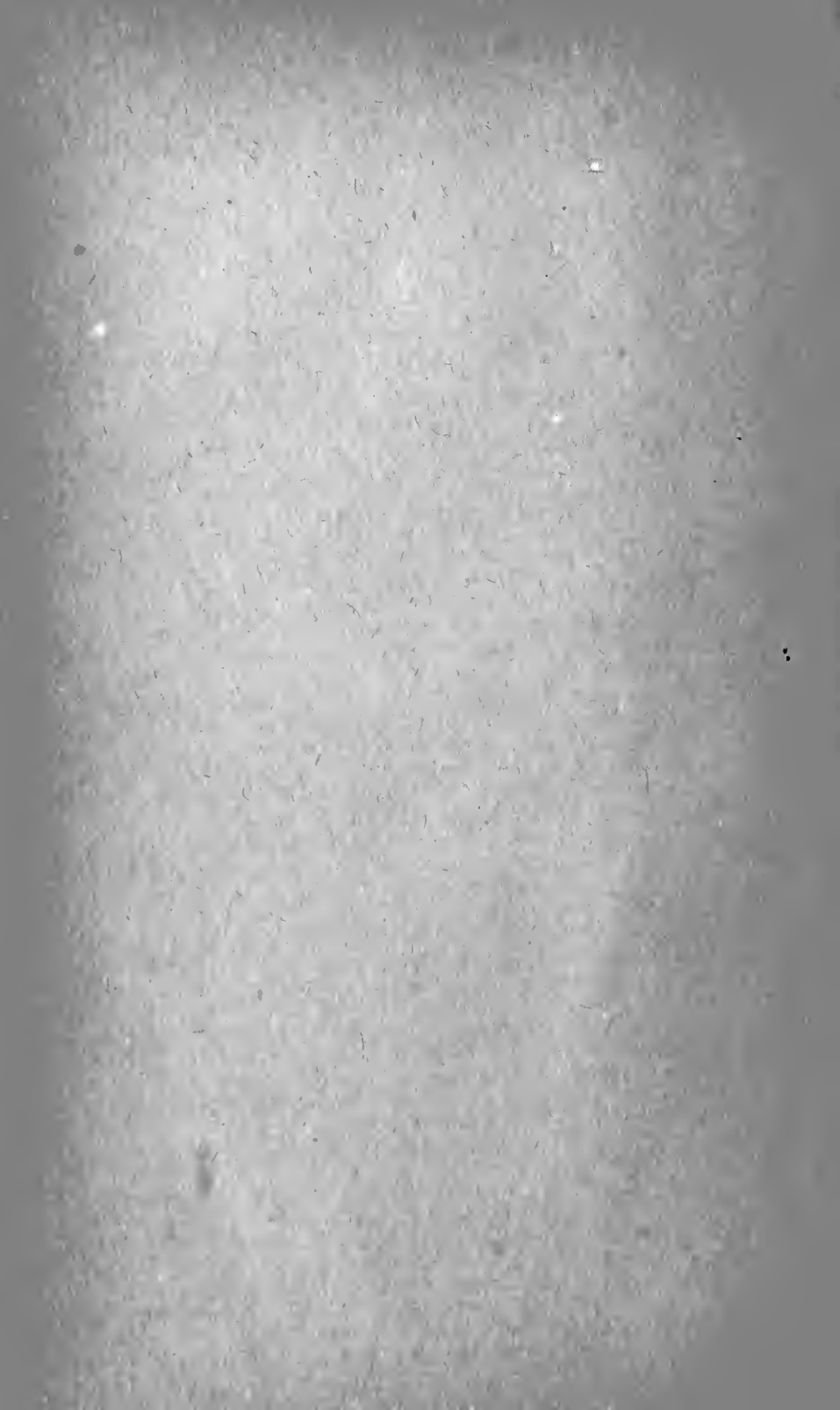
In the largest libraries it will be found impossible for the superintendent to deal personally with many of the readers. If, however, of such a temperament that he takes pleasure in associating with the users of the library, he can, by only giving a few minutes in a day to the work, do a great deal to make visitors and students feel that an air of hospitality pervades the institution. Most of the intercourse in such libraries must be between readers and accomplished or specially-informed assistants.

In many of the smaller libraries the officers cannot find time to mingle freely with readers. Perhaps, in some such cases, it may be practicable for librarians to avail themselves of gratuitous assistance by public spirited and educated residents. I should think there are, for instance, many cultivated and philanthropic women in the country, whose services can be availed of to do work of the kind recommended.

The boards of trustees and directors which manage public libraries may be relied on to appreciate this kind of work, and are always inclined to further its performance, by allowing time to the librarian in which to do it.

The more freely a librarian mingles with readers, and the greater the amount of assistance he renders them, the more intense does the conviction of citizens, also, become, that the library is a useful institution, and the more willing do they grow to grant money in larger and larger sums, to be used in buying books and employing additional assistants.

In conclusion, I wish to say, that there are few pleasures comparable to that of associating continually with curious and vigorous young minds, and of aiding them in realizing their ideals.



ESSAY ON THE SYSTEM OF CLASSIFICATION.

BY WM. T. HARRIS.

When one considers the function which the Library performs in modern Education, the importance of a good Catalogue becomes manifest. Our tuition in the Public Schools scarcely more than suffices to give the pupil the ability to use with advantage the printed page. If he is to become learned, he must do so by independent and extensive reading. Even our best Universities do not graduate *learned* men; they merely initiate their students into the technicalities of a circle of sciences and arts, and, when this is done, send them forth to fill up these empty technicalities with real knowledge obtained from experience and, more especially, from books. For it must be borne in mind, that a science is rather the joint product of the labors of several generations of men belonging to different countries, than the result of the efforts of any one man. It is clear that these labors can be preserved and transmitted only by aid of books. Thus it is that each man must assist his own feeble efforts by availing himself of the labors of all. The individual must reinforce himself with the power of the race. He can do this by means of the library. Instead of being confined to the use of his own senses, however acute, the student has the service of the senses of all the great naturalists, from Aristotle down to Agassiz, for their results are all carefully collected and preserved in the library.

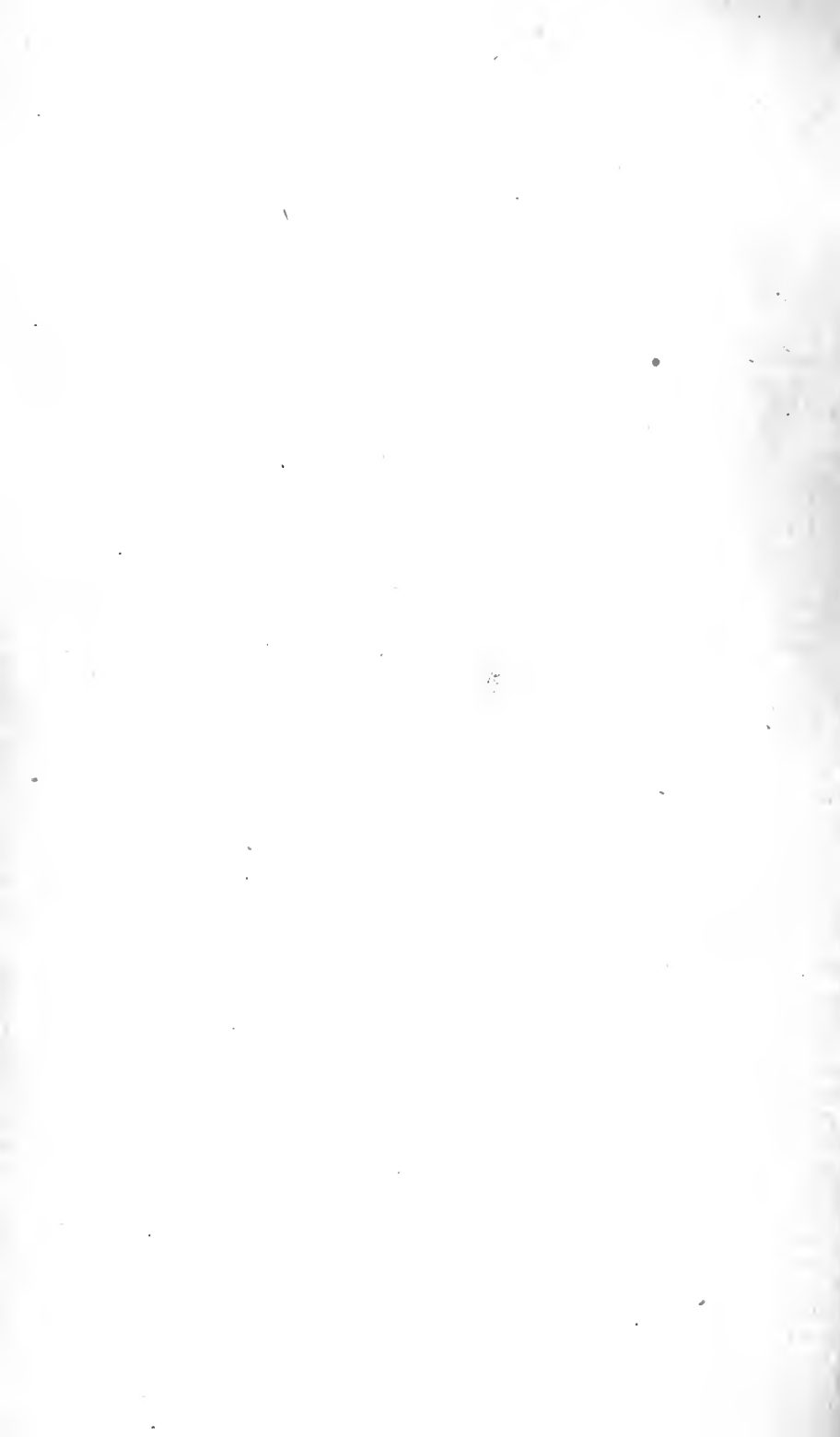
But, in order to subserve these high purposes, the library must be classified, arranged, and catalogued in such a manner as to furnish to the student a ready key to its contents. To use the words of Mr. Abbott,* there must be an "Index of Authors," to enable a person to determine readily whether any particular work belongs to the library, and, if it does, where it is placed; secondly, there must be an "Index of Subjects," to serve as a guide to the separate works in the library on any particular subject.

This key to a library must be in the possession of the scholar who would master it. It will not suffice that a complete manuscript catalogue, or a card catalogue, be kept at the library; for the scholar can best examine its resources in the quiet of his own study; he must not be forced to do this essential work in the public gathering place. It follows, therefore, that a printed catalogue is indispensable to the complete utilization of a library.

With these convictions regarding the importance of printed catalogues fixed in our minds, we approach the practical problem placed before us in the needs of our Public School Library. The first question, "Is the particular work I wish to find in this Library?" is solved by an alphabetical index of authors and book-titles, and there is no practical difficulty in making such an index. But the second question, "What books have you in this library treating on this particular theme that I am studying?" it is not so easy to deal with: it can be answered only through a classified index, and there is great diversity of opinion as to the construction of such an index.

Classified Index.

Whoever has had occasion to consult the classified catalogues of libraries in this country or in Europe, has no doubt experienced the difficulty met with in determining what classes he shall search in order to find books treating on the topics of his investigation. The difficulty experienced by the investigator is still more troublesome to the corps of librarians. To determine the exact class to which the book belongs, to place it where it can be found again at once when inquired for, to open to the scholar seeking information the entire resources of the library on a special theme—these are constant duties of the librarian, which imply a good system of classification. Every scheme of classification



rests upon some philosophical system as its basis. Even that system adopted so widely in this country, which—to use the words of Mr. Abbott—“abandons the idea of classification and arranges the subjects, general and special, in alphabetical order, without subdivisions, like the words in a dictionary,”—even that system recognizes general classes, and by so doing it recognizes or implies principles of division and generalization which find no justification outside of Philosophy. And if the confusion and uncertainty arising from such a scheme be corrected in the way Mr. Abbott suggests—“by numerous subdivisions arranged in a secondary alphabetical series under the general head,”—still more is a philosophical system implied. The “confusion and uncertainty” of the mere alphabetical arrangement of subjects is well exposed by Mr. Abbott: “The inquirer must often be uncertain under what word in the catalogue he should look for his subject, because it is often difficult for the cataloguer to determine how a particular subject should be designated. First, there is the case of *synonymous or equivalent terms*. He has to choose, for instance, between Antiquities and Archæology; between Birds and Ornithology; between Shells and Conchology, or Mollusca and Malacology; between Masonry and Freemasonry, to say nothing of Anti-Masonry; between Protection, Tariff, and Free Trade. Or if, as has generally been the case in catalogues constructed on this system, he is governed merely by the accidental phraseology of the title, he separates works of precisely the same class, placing some under one heading and others under one or more synonymous headings in another part of the alphabet, greatly to the inconvenience of the inquirer. Again, many subjects are usually expressed by *two or more words*, as, Capital Punishment, Future Punishment, College Education, Moral Philosophy, Agricultural Chemistry, English Grammar, English Proverbs, Scottish Ballads, Art of War, International Law, Commercial Law, Comparative Anatomy, Natural Theology, not to mention the equivalent terms often used for many of them, as, Death Penalty, Academic or University Education, Ethics, Military Art, Law of Nations, Mercantile Law, Natural Religion. *How is a person to know beforehand under which of these words he will find the subject entered in the Catalogue?*”

Not to speak of the errors that may arise in subdividing the general subjects, it is evident that Mr. Abbott's own system has merely abridged the number of the above-mentioned causes of “confusion and uncertainty.” For, unless he reduces his general subjects to two or three general heads and exhibits somewhere his *scheme* of classification, there will still remain the same difficulties in the way of finding these general subjects as before. He has reduced the confusion to comparatively narrow limits; there is no reason why he should not go on and complete a scientific system, by adding the few general heads needed for the purpose. And after doing this, what is clearer than the advantage gained by placing this index by itself, instead of scattering it through an immense list of alphabetically-arranged authors and book-titles? The amount of time consumed needlessly on account of this absurd arrangement (see the Index to the Boston Public Library, Lower Hall) is immense. Moreover, it effectually prevents the scholar from getting clearly mapped out before his mind the system of classification. Such a plan would seem to be resorted to for the purpose of concealing a crude and ill-digested system of division.

When we consider the obvious advantages gained by presenting to the eye of the reader for constant use an exhaustive scheme of classifying “Human Learning as preserved in books,” it is strange that our Librarians have not deemed this subject worthy of more attention. The objections to a classified index: “That it is impractical;” “that it obliges the uninitiated person to master a very complex system of classification before he can use it;” these objections apply also, and with more force, to the alphabetically-arranged system of classification. In fact, the difficulty of mastering a system of classification is small, compared with the difficulty of making an exhaustive list of headings necessary for the search of books, in an alphabetical list. And such a mastery of the system is unnecessary, for the scholar can run his eye over the four or five pages of subjects in the scheme in a few moments, even if he does not know the principles of classification. No system would or could be complete without cross references, because of the miscellaneous character of the contents of books.*

* That the cross references are not numerous or complete in the Index herewith published is to be regretted; the excuse is, that the time required in their preparation would have deferred so long the pub-

The results of a somewhat extended study of the subject of Classification of Books, and the arrangement of the practical details of a catalogue are embodied in the following remarks, with the hope that they may prove useful not only to librarians, but especially to philosophical students who desire to look over the whole range of human intelligence as realized in books. The scheme is given in detail on pages IV.-VII. of this Index.

The Scheme of Classification.

It uses Bacon's fundamental distinction (developed in the *De Augmentis Scientiarum*, Book II. chap. I.) of the different faculties of the soul into MEMORY, IMAGINATION, and REASON, from which proceed the three grand departments of human learning, to wit: History, Poetry, and Philosophy. Without particularly intending to classify books as such, Lord Bacon attempted to map out "human learning," as he called it, and show its unity and the principle of development in the same. But his deep glance seized the formative idea which distinguishes different species of books.

The *content*—or what books treat of—is not a sufficient basis of distinction to ground a classification on. For any class of books may treat of two or more phases of the content at once; and since Nature and Mind never exist isolatedly, but always in some degree of synthesis, it follows that nearly all books treat of both, and hence will prove hybrids in such a classification.* It may be here remarked that the chief reason for the signal failure of the attempts at classification made by distinguished philosophers and literary men is this: they have conceived that the classifications of science would answer equally well for the classification of the books of a library; and whereas science has for its domain all existence, and to some degree can be classified by its object-matter, they have sought to divide books on the same plan. Notable among the impractical systems of this order is that of Ampère,* which divides "Noölogically" and "Cosmologically" according to a schematizing formalism as strict and stiff as mathematics. Coleridge, in the *Encyclopædia Metropolitana*, has given another example of the same error, though in a more genial shape. Coleridge was a poet, as well as philosopher—strongly influenced by the ideas of Schelling. Inasmuch as Schelling philosophized with the "Ideal and the Real" and their "Union"—making the *Ideal* the "pole" of pure thought or Philosophy, and the *Real* the "pole" of Nature, and Art the union of the two, or the "Absolute Indifference"—Coleridge likewise set out with "Pure Sciences" as the first division, placed "History, Biography and Geography" as the third, and for the middle or connecting link "Mixed and applied Sciences." As result thereof we find the whole realm of Poetry crowded into a minute subdivision coördinate with "Numismatics"; it is the sixth section of the third class of the second division of the whole! Its subdivisions are entirely omitted, while minute subdivisions are given to "Astronomy" and to "Invertebrals"! This, however, does not surprise us when we bear in mind that Coleridge had in view only the requirements of a Cyclopædia†.

Brunet's system is the most popular of the unphilosophical order, and is somewhat

* See Appendix to Devey's *Logic*, *Bohn's Library*.

† Edwards in his "Memoirs of Libraries" gives Coleridge's classification differently. He has taken a modified form of it made for the purpose of adapting it to a library; hence he places "Literature and Philology" under a fourth general head.

In the work of Edwards here cited, thirty-two celebrated schemes of classification are given, thirteen of which are designated as "more or less dependent on, or illustrative of, systems of Metaphysics;" the others are "directed more or less specifically to the practical arrangement of books."

The most general divisions of some of the former schemes are as follows: that of Prosper Marchand (A. D. 1704): Cl. I. Philosophy, II. Theology, III. History, IV. *Appendix*—Polygraphy.

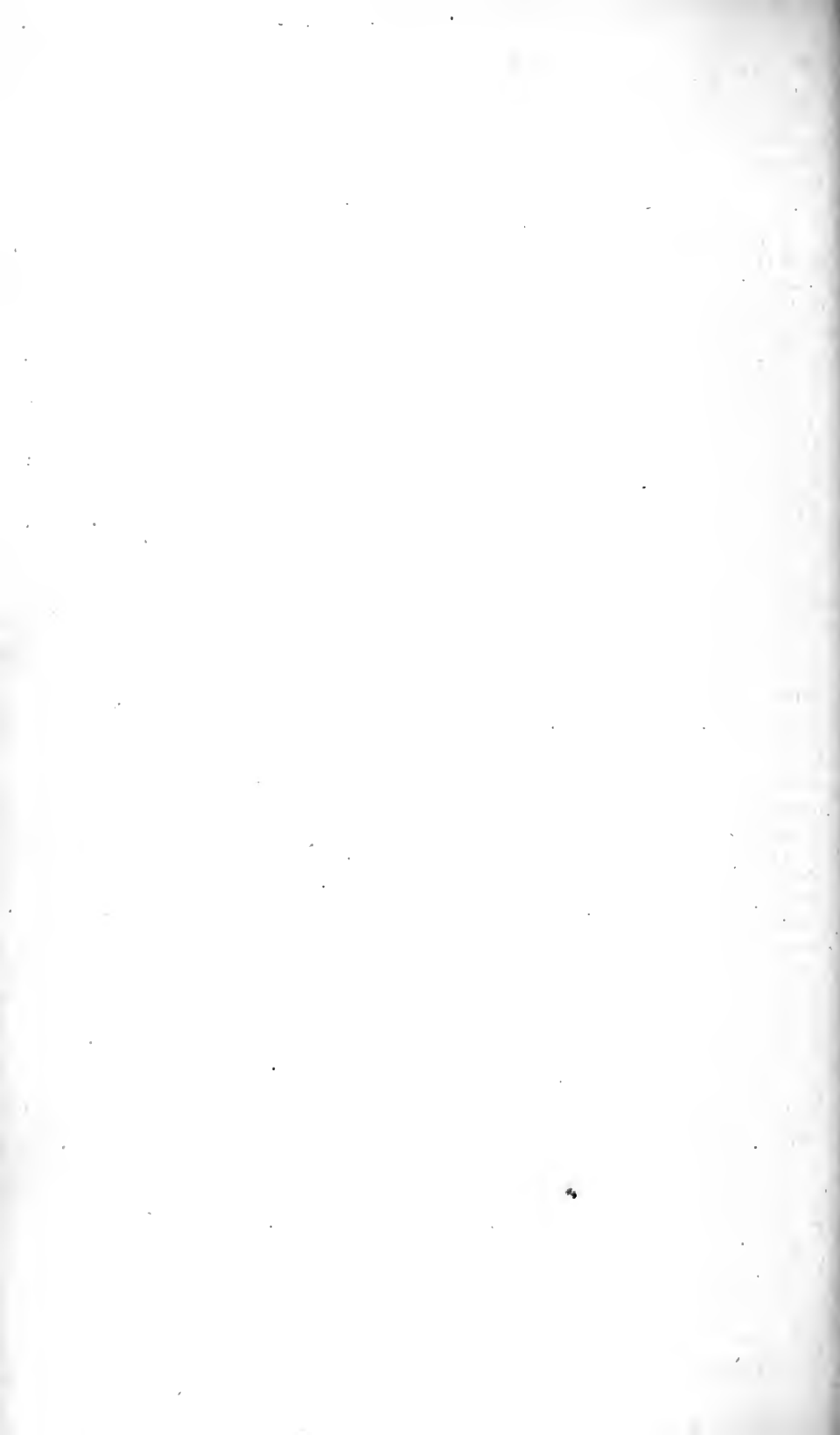
System of Girard (1748): Class I. Theology, II. Nomology, III. Historiography, IV. Philosophy, V. Philology, VI. Technology.

System of Girault: Class I. Preliminary Instruction, II. Cosmography, III. History, IV. Legislation, V. Natural History, VI. Sciences and Arts.

System of Bentham: Class I. Ontology, II. Pneumatology (such subclasses are found in this system as "Idioscopic Ontology," "Polioscopic Somatics," "Nooscopic Pneumatology," "Polioscopic Ethics," &c.)

System of M. Albert (1847): Class I. Polylogy, II. Cosmology, III. Andrology, IV. Theology.

Of the practical schemes mentioned, the following are notable:



practical—after one has learned it (for it requires the memory exclusively, no aid given the librarian by any intimation of a scientific justification at its basis). It is needless to say that it coördinates classes with subclasses and confounds genera with species, and yet has no practical reason therefor. inasmuch as some subdivisions have (in an ordinary library) ten times the number of books that may be found under some one general class; take, for example, a subdivision of “Belles-Lettres” and compare it with the whole division of “Jurisprudence” or that of “Theology.” It is clear that Brunet’s Catalogue was made rather for the bookseller in Paris than for the librarian.

In the classification based on the three faculties—Memory, Imagination, Reason—whence we have History, Poetry, and Philosophy, the distinction according to *form* makes its appearance, and is of some use in the classification of books. Lord Bacon, however, did not have in view any such use of his distinction, nor did he develop it in a proper shape to be of such use. Nor, finally, was it possible for him at that time to do this work, had he contemplated it; for the sciences had scarcely begun to unfold in his time sufficiently to give him a hint as to what form they would assume. He evidently thought that they would take a historical form, and therefore placed what has proved the most important branch under the division of “History.” It is for this reason that he names his third division “Philosophy”—excluding its more obvious forms—the Sciences—from his mind in naming it. In his time, prose fiction had developed very little, and the novelists hitherto known had scarcely availed to advance any species of Prose to the dignity of Art; hence Bacon chose the name Poetry for the whole domain. In our time, the realm of Reflection and Speculation (Understanding and Reason) is called SCIENCE, Philosophy being merely one of its forms, while the realm of Phantasy or Productive Imagination is called ART or ÆSTHETICS. The word “Poetry,” in its origin containing creative significance, was admirably adapted to name the works of the Productive Imagination, and this recommended it to Bacon.

An outline of Bacon’s system as further elaborated in the nine books of the Advancement of Learning (*De Aug. Sci.*) is as follows:

HISTORY.

A. NATURAL HISTORY.

a. Generations [*i. e.* producing regularly].

1. *Celestial bodies.*
2. *Meteors and Comets.* [?]
3. *Earth, Air, Fire, and Water, or the Elements.*
4. *Species of Bodies.* [?]

b. Præter-generations.

c. Arts.

B. CIVIL HISTORY.

a. Civil History Proper.

- (unfinished) 1. *Memoirs.* (a) Commentaries. (b) Registers. (1) Calendars. (2) Journals.
 (defaced) 2. *Antiquities* (sources).
 (finished) 3. *Perfect History.* (1) Chronicles. (2) Biographies. (3) Special Histories or Narratives.
 4. *Cosmographical.*

b. Ecclesiastical History.

System of Aldus Manutius (1498): Class I. Grammar, II. Poetry, III. Logic, IV. Philosophy, V. Holy Scripture.

System of Johannes Rhodius (1631): Class I. Theology, II. Jurisprudence, III. Medicine, IV. Philosophy, V. History, VI. Poetry, VII. Oratory, VIII. Rhetoric, IX. Logic, X. Philology, XI. Criticism, XII. Grammar.

System of Bouillaud (1678), called the “French System,” and used with slight modifications by Martin (1740), Debure (1768), and by Brunet in his well-known “*Manuel du Libraire*”: Class I. Theology, II. Jurisprudence, III. Sciences and Arts, IV. Polite Literature, V. History.

System of Leibnitz (1700): Class I. Theology, II. Jurisprudence, III. Medicine, IV. Intellectual Philosophy, V. Mathematics, VI. Physics, VII. Civil History, VIII. Literary History and Bibliography, IX. Polygraphy and Miscellanies.

System of St. Petersburg Imperial Library (1808): Class I. Sciences, II. Arts, III. Philology.

System of Middleton (1775): Class I. Theology, II. Profane History, III. Civil Law, IV. Philosophy, V. Mathematics, VI. Natural History, VII. Medicine, VIII. Polite Literature.

System of Schleiermacher (1847): Class I. Encyclopædias, Literary History and Bibliography, II. Polygraphy, III. Philology, IV. Greek and Latin Literature, V. Modern Polite Literature, VI. Fine Arts, VII. Historical Sciences, VIII. Mathematical and Physical Sciences, IX. Natural History, X. Medicine, XI. Industrial and Economical Sciences, XII. Philosophy, XIII. Theology, XIV. Jurisprudence and Politics.

There is a tendency to the use of new-coined words in many of these schemes. It is of the utmost importance in a practical scheme to avoid pedantry of this sort.

1. History of Church.
2. History of Prophecy.
3. History of Providence.

c. Literary History.

C. APPENDIX TO HISTORY.

- a. Speeches.
- b. Letters.
- c. Apophthegms.

POETRY.

- A. "NARRATIVE OR HEROIC" [Epic and Lyric].
- B. DRAMATIC.
- C. ALLEGORICAL. Fables, Mythologies, &c.

PHILOSOPHY.

- A. THEOLOGY OR DIVINE PHILOSOPHY.
- B. NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.

- a. Speculative.
 1. *Physics*. (a) Principles of things. (b) Structure of things. (c) Varieties of things.
 - (1) Concretes. Subdivided like Natural History into "celestial, terrestrial, &c."
 - (2) Abstract. a. Properties of matter. b. Motions.
 2. *Metaphysics*. (a) Essential forms. (b) Final causes.
- b. Practical.
 1. *Mechanics*.
 2. *Magic* [i. e. application of the discoveries of Science to practical uses—Telegraph].
- c. Appendix. Mathematics.
 1. *Pure Mathematics*. (a) Geometry (continued Quantity). (b) Arithmetic (discrete Quantity).
 2. *Mixed Mathematics*. (a) Perspective. (b) Music. (c) Astronomy. (d) Cosmography (Geography). (e) Architecture. (f) Mechanics.

C. PHILOSOPHY OF MAN.

- a. Human Philosophy.
 1. *The Body* (Somatology?) (a) Medicinal Art. (1) Hygienic. (2) Curative. (3) To prolong life. (b) Cosmetic. (c) Athletic. (d) Voluptuary (Liberal) Arts. (1) Painting. (2) Music.
 2. *Soul and Body related*. (a) Indications. (1) Physiognomy. (2) Interpretation of dreams. (b) Impressions upon the soul through the body.
 3. *Soul*. (a) Rational soul. (1) Faculties. (a) Logic. Arts of—I. Invention; II. Judgment; III. Memory; IV. Tradition. (b) Ethics. I. Models; II. Culture of mind; &c.

The general unfitness of this system* for the classification of books is apparent; it was not intended for it. But its principle of division is of great value. To be applied to the use of a library, it is necessary to seize and not lose sight of its spirit, in the details which Bacon gives. It will be found that in minor divisions and sections the *content* exercises a predominating influence on the classification, while in the principal divisions the *form* is the guiding principle.

Inverting the order in which Bacon considers the system, *Science* should come first on account of its furnishing the method and principles for what follows.

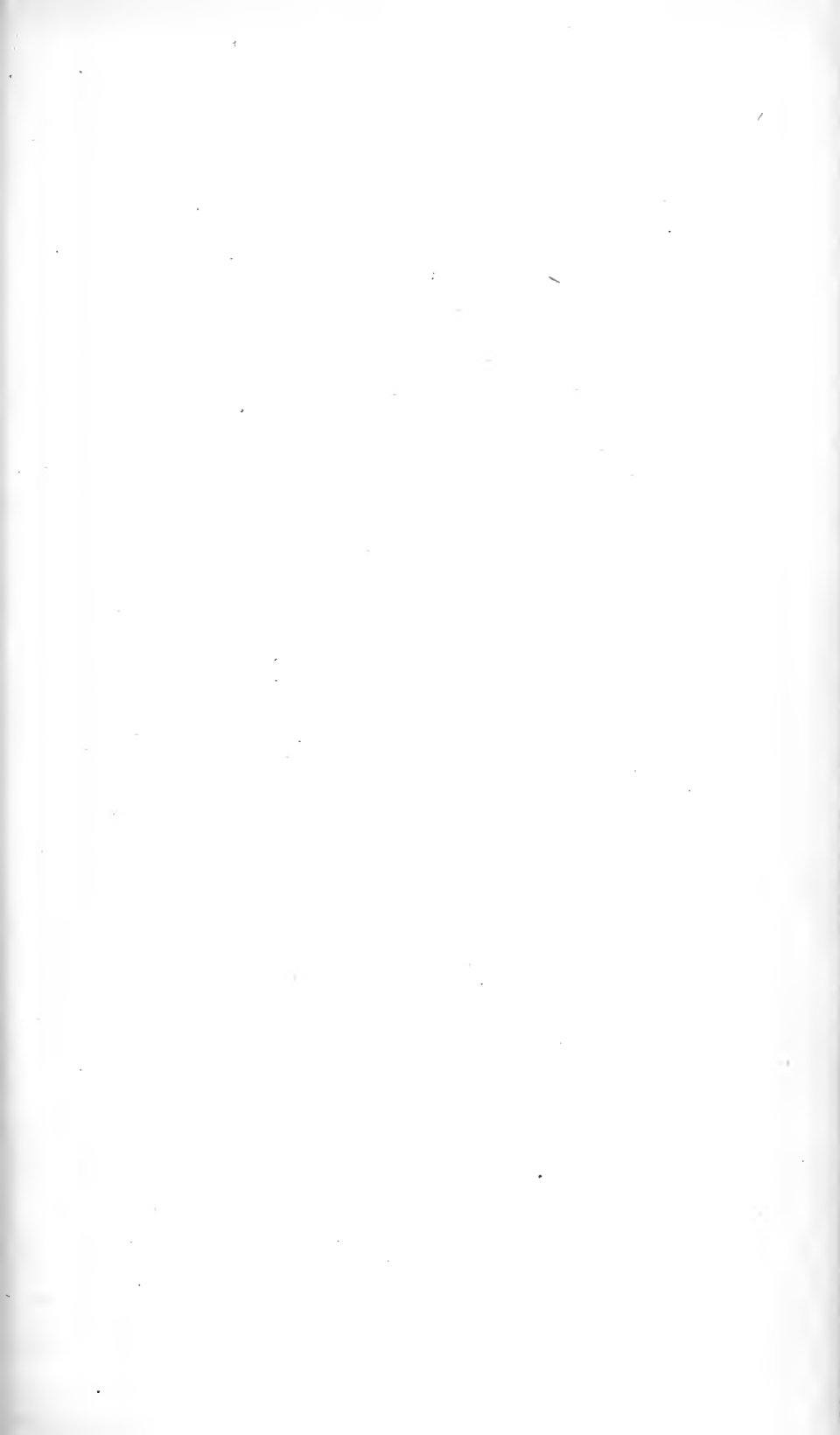
I. SCIENCE gives the department of books in which *conscious system* prevails.

II. ART (*Æsthetics*) gives the department in which "organic unity" or unconscious system prevails.

III. HISTORY gives the department in which the system is determined by accidental relations, such as time and place.

* I should not omit this opportunity to refer to the Catalogue of that excellent collection, the St. Louis Mercantile Library, which is based on the Baconian system. In fact, it was the eminent practical success of that system of classification—considering both its usefulness to the reader and its convenience to the librarians—that led to this attempt at a Classified Catalogue of the Public School Library. The form of the Baconian system adopted in the Catalogue of the Mercantile Library is substantially that of D'Alembert [*Encyclopédie Methodique*, 1767]; but it has numerous modifications introduced by the fertile mind of the librarian, Edward Wm. Johnston, Esq., whose remarks in the introduction are worthy of being remembered here: "There is but one real method of arranging the contents of large libraries: and this is the Systematic—the regular classing of books, each under the subject of which it treats, so as to bring together for the student in one body all that the collection affords as to each separate matter; while every matter, of course, finds its own due place in a right intellectual arrangement of all human knowledge. A mere alphabetical method (if indeed it can be called such) can never, no matter how well executed, supply the place of a true one. There is nothing to recommend it except its facility of execution. For to make its (so-called) Classified Index at all accomplish what it assumes to do, it would have to be as large and minute as a regular systematic one, while totally destitute of its high advantage of rational arrangement."

In Mr. Johnston's arrangement there are 74 subdivisions of the class History; 120 of the class Philosophy; 31 of the class Poetry. Many of the subdivisions in the present Catalogue have been borrowed from his system; but his system lacks proper subordination, and there is consequently much confusion in the second department, or "Philosophy."



These distinctions must not be allowed to prevail throughout, but must be met and modified by the principle of *subject-matter* in all minor respects. It needs careful deliberation to unite these two principles so as to retain the highest degree of simplicity in arrangement; and this is the main point to be borne in mind: that the principle of classification is not a simple one, like that used by the classifiers of sciences—Coleridge, Ampère, Comte, and Aristotle—but a compound one, in which form and content mutually limit each the other.

This compound principle, which is a concrete and practical one, gives for our guidance a series of rules like the following:

I. Main Divisions.

(a) Commence the system with the division that realizes in the highest degree the characteristic principle of the general class, and proceed from the fullest realization to the incomplete one which marks the transition to the following class; (b) commence the following class with those subjects most closely allied to what precedes, and then, *secondly*, take the type of the class, and proceed, *thirdly*, to the transition to the next.

Illustration.

“Philosophy” is the highest type of Science, and hence begins the catalogue.

Science ends with the useful Arts, which form a transition to the Division of *Æsthetic Art*, and this should commence with the “Fine Arts” and be followed by Poetry.

Geography and Travels are placed before History proper, because under this head are included works of freer and more literary character than Civil History as such; for the traveller is governed mainly by subjective caprice, and is not limited to a definite subject-matter like the Historian or Biographer.

II. Subdivisions.

(a) In the minor classifications, *General Treatises* should come first, and these should include *Compendes* and so-called “Philosophies” of the subject (these being for the most part mere compends). Secondly should come the chief and important example of the general class, and then should follow its less important realizations. (b) But in science this principle is modified by that of the order of scientific development, giving the abstract first, and the complex and concrete later.

Illustration.

1st. Compendes, &c., of History.

2d. Histories of Nations: this being the normal type of History.

3d. Historical Miscellany, including fragments of History.

III. Appendixes.

Collections and miscellaneous works should be placed like compendes under the general head. Complete works of individuals and certain complete collections which it is desirable to keep together should be considered in respect to the compass of the subjects treated of, and placed under the most special head that will contain them.

Illustration.

Medical Encyclopædias would fall under the class of Medicine and not under General Cyclopædias (99) in the Appendix, nor among general works in Natural Science.

IV. Hybrids.

Any work not exactly falling under any one section, or including two or more heterogeneous subjects which do not unite in some general head, must be classified according to the predominant one, or according to the obvious purpose of the book, “cross-references” being made in the catalogue.

Illustration.

1. Books on Architecture may fall under *Mechanic Arts*, or under *Fine Arts*, according to the point of view taken by the author in composing the work.

2. The “Art of Literary Composition” may fall under “Rhetoric,” or under “Philology,” according as Grammar or Rhetoric predominates therein.

3. “Engraving” may fall under “Mechanic Art,” or, if a treatise on pictures produced by the engraver, under “Fine Arts.”

4. Natural History; although some of its treatises are merely descriptive, yet, since their object is scientific, they all fall under Science.

5. Juvenile Literature treats of Science, Travels, History, Fiction, &c.; yet, since the entire form of treatment is modified so as to *interest and amuse* youth while instructing him, all these books resemble novels and romances, which likewise may have scientific or historic content; they are, therefore, kept together and under the class of "Prose Fiction."

6. "Ecclesiastical History" (usually made a division under History) is so nearly allied to the treatment of dogmatic Theology that it is important to keep the two together. The same principle applies to histories of other specialties.

7. "Theology" itself cannot be separated from "Religion," and hence the latter finds its works—Holy Scriptures, Liturgies, Church history, and other non-scientific works—under Science, for the reason that they are all tributary to Theology, which is a science; with the development of humanity they become more and more taken up into scientific forms.

8. "Jurisprudence" likewise is for the most part not a collection of scientific works at all, but the record of the realizations of the Practical Will in the shape of laws and usages. Its books, however, are used essentially for scientific and not for æsthetical or historical purposes.

9. "Essays" and "Criticisms" are not works of Art according to form, but are, strictly speaking, scientific, and would fall under Philosophy, or some other department of Science. Since, however, their content is some form of Art or Literature, they are useful solely to æsthetic students and are classified under Art.

With these guiding principles before us, our system develops as follows:

SCIENCE unfolds into

- I. Philosophy, or the most general principles, the forms and archetypes of all the rest. It has the strictest, most systematic method, and is the source of all system to the other sciences.
- II. Theology—the science of the Absolute, just as Philosophy is the science of Science.
- III. Social and Political Sciences, including the treatises upon the institutions which relate man to his fellow-men in society and the state. His essential life as a spiritual being is conditioned upon his ascent above his merely natural, individual condition, by means of combination in the social organism.

These are—

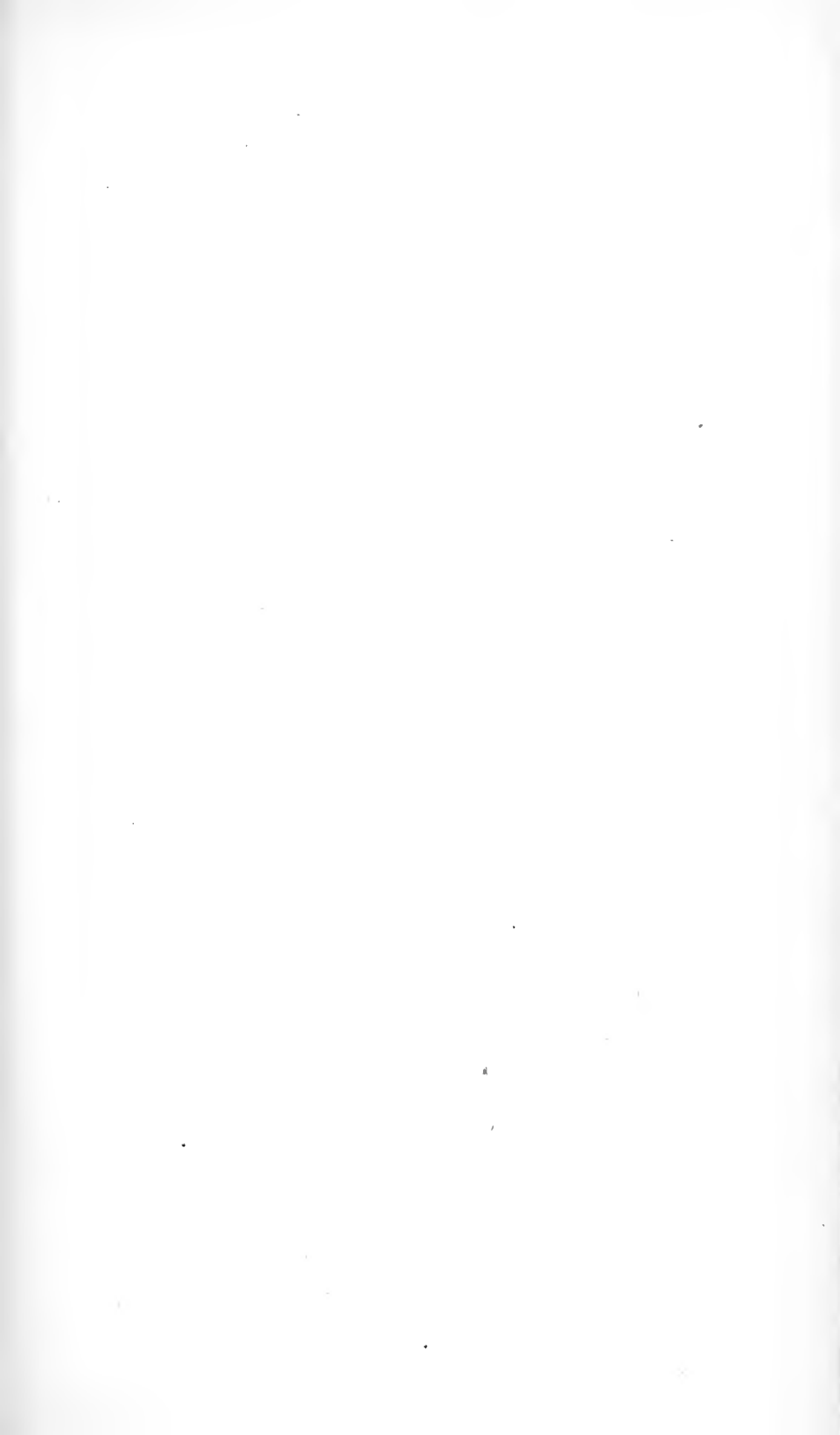
1. Jurisprudence (in which the social organism appears as a constraining necessity acting upon the individual from without).
2. Politics (in which the individual reacts against this constraint, and exhibits himself as the free producer of the Universal, which is placed over him in the shape of Law).

- | | | |
|--|---|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. Political Economy. 4. Education. | } | <p>Social science. (Social science as Political Economy, exhibits the principles of combination, by means of division of labor, and how this results in the conquest of nature and the dedication of it to the service of man. As Education, it exhibits the process of initiating the individual into the conventionalities of the social organism—man's apprenticeship in acquiring the use of the tools of intelligence.)</p> |
|--|---|--|

5. Philology. (Philology is placed in the division of the Social and Political Sciences, because, as Science of Language, it is the science of the instrument that lies at the basis of all combination or organization. Language (The Word) is the image of Reason, and is not a natural product, but the invention of self-conscious thought; it is not *found* but *made*—partly by the poetic phantasy, and partly by the reflective understanding. For the reason that Mind becomes, as it were, crystalized or *fixed* in Language, we place Philology as a connecting link between the Spiritual and Natural. The language of a people embalms all the achievements of that people acting as a social, political, or spiritual organization.)

These latter four sciences treat of the means through which man arrives at a comprehension of the necessity of the social organism and through which it





IV. Natural Sciences and Useful Arts: the former unfold the laws of Nature; the latter apply them to social uses. The transition is formed by Medicine, which is partly science, partly art.

1. Mathematics is the science of the pure forms of Nature—time and space.
2. Physics is Nature treated dynamically, and hence quantitatively or mathematically.
3. Natural History is Nature organically considered, hence qualitatively and descriptively. Chemistry forms the transition from quantitative to qualitative; it is the realm where quantity constitutes qualitative difference. Astronomy is a hybrid, belonging to Mathematics and Natural History.

In Natural History we commence with the Mineral or Earth-organism, and ascend through the Plant and Animal to Man as a merely natural being [Ethnology].

4. Medicine is closely allied to Natural History, and its subjects take up in a new form the same content.
5. The useful arts and trades start from Natural Science and proceed to unite with it a purely empirical element.

ART unfolds—

- I. The Fine Arts.
- II. Poetry.
- III. Prose Fiction.
- IV. Literary Miscellany, comprising rhetorical works (orations) and literary essays which have either an Art form more or less impure, or are so related to works of Art in their subject-matter as not to be separated from this class.

HISTORY—

- I. Geography and Travels form the first or most external class under History.
- II. Civil History is the Normal type of this division.
- III. Biography and Correspondence. Heraldry and Genealogy also fall properly under this head.

An APPENDIX is subjoined for certain works, or collections of works, which treat of topics belonging to each of the three general divisions.

Minute Subdivisions.

Caution should be taken with regard to such works as do not fall readily into a special class under the general number of the section; they should be left without special letters, until, by the addition of similar works, they become too numerous, when a special subclass may be made, giving it a letter.

Numbering.

Instead of the inconvenient method of marking the classification of books by indicating all the grades (*e. g.* Hygiene=Sci. X. 5. d), it is better to have the classes numbered from 1 to 100, so as to have only two figures for most classes, and to add letters for subclasses as they arise. In this way the general numbering need not change, although new subclasses may be made frequently. The books on the shelves should be alphabetically arranged within the subclasses (*e. g.* those of Hygiene numbered “57.d” should be alphabetically arranged) according to the name of the chief author (*i. e.* the most distinguished name, when there are several authors’ or editors’ names in the title). This name and the subclass number should be written plainly on the book-label, so that the dullest library-boy can put any book into its exact place on the shelves, or find it instantly when he has obtained its classification from the catalogue. This system of numbering is one of the most practical and valuable features of the system here described.

5

LIBRARIES
OF
RAILROAD
Young Men's Christian Associations,

By R. B. POOL,

Librarian of the Young Men's Christian Association of New York City.

A paper read before the Second International Conference of Christian Railroad Men, at
Altoona, Pa., September 18, 1879.

The founders and friends of Young Men's Christian Associations have wisely regarded the Library as an important agency in their work. It is a tool indispensable to the best and complete working of a R. R. Association. What shall we aim to make the peculiar feature and excellence of this library for R. R. men? Evidently it should not be composed of books suited for scholars, philosophers, and men of studious life; nor will mere sentimental works like the latest sensational novels answer. But the books should be adapted to the tastes of practical men of common sense, who are grappling with the stern realities of life, and who want to devote their spare moments to reading which will help to advance them in their work or give them agreeable pastime. The aim should be to make the library exert an elevating influence on the men. In order to do this the grade of books should be a little above the average grade of the readers, not below them. It will then be educating in its influence. We will not attempt, here, to specify the works on general literature, science, etc., which should characterize such a library, but will content ourselves to name some of the standard histories, of the leading nations, and works on the Bible, and pass to consider that class of books which will be especially practical in a railroad library and interesting to railroad men. The following works in general history will make a good foundation in this class of literature:

HISTORY.

Rawlinson's Ancient Monarchies;	Merivale's History of Rome under the Empire;
Wilkinson's Ancient Egyptians ;	Gibbon's Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire;
Smith's Students' History of Greece;	Kelly's (W. K.) History of Russia—a compilation;
Plutarch's Lives. Clough's edition;	Macauley & Green's Histories of Eng.;
Grote's History of Greece;	
Arnold's History of Rome, also The Later Commonwealth;	

Guizot's History of France;
 Knight's Popular History of England;
 Kohlrausch's, Lewis' and Menzel's Histories of Germany;
 Coxe's—History of the House of Austria (Bohn);
 Motley's Netherlands; also, Rise of the Dutch Republic;
 Bancroft's, Hildreth's and Bryant's United States;

Prescott's Historical Works;
 Lossing's Field Book of the Revolution; also, The Civil War in America;
 The Count of Paris' History of the Civil War in America;
 D'Aubigné's—History of the Church;
 Schaff's History of the Church;
 Milman's History of the Church.

The social life of certain periods of history has been portrayed by distinguished writers of novels; some of them it would be desirable to possess. The Boston Public Library publishes a list of the works of fiction, in which are pointed out such historical novels. This list can be purchased.

In the immense field of literature the question seems to be, what *not* to select? Whatever is immoral, sensational and trashy must be excluded. There will be frequent inquiries for some trivial works, which will have a short run, and then be laid on the shelf, to occupy space and gather dust as their highest mission. Rigidly exclude such.

Select some of our standard English and American authors in fiction, poetry and prose literature, and in buying the works of living authors, reflect whether they will be of permanent value.

The reading of fiction is unquestionably carried to a most unhealthy excess in our day, and a firm censorship should be exercised in selecting this class of works.

This library should not have a shelf, but a set of shelves for the Bible, the book that eclipses all books. There should be Bibles in as many languages as there will be found readers, and such popular expositions as will invite a closer study of the Bible, and aid those who are engaged in Christian work.

BIBLE.

Henry's Commentary;
 Barnes' Notes;
 Bush on the Pentateuch;
 Alexander, Jacobus, Whedon, Fuller, Poole's Commentaries;
 The Comprehensive Commentary;
 Smith's Dictionary of the Bible, (Hackett and Abbott, Editors);
 Cruden's Concordance;
 Kitto's Illustrated Works on the Bible;
 Hitchcock's Analysis of the Bible;
 Dean Stanley's Jewish History;
 Andrew's Life of our Lord;
 The Land and the Book (Thomson);
 Conybeare and Howson's Life of St. Paul.
 Robinson's Harmony of the Gospels;

Bonar—The Desert of Sinai;
 Macgregor—The Rob Roy on the Jordan;
 Henderson—Concordance of Scripture Names;
 Hunter's Sacred Biography;
 Taylor, W. M.—Daniel the Beloved;
 Wood—Animals of the Bible;
 Stowe—History of the Books of the Bible;
 Ranyard, Ellen—The Book and its Story;
 Barrows—Companion to the Bible;
 Ryle's Expository Thoughts;
 Trench on the Miracles;
 “ on the Parables;
 “ Studies in the Gospels;

Anderson — Annals of the English Bible ;	Clark's (Adam) Commentary on the Bible ;
Alford's New Testament for English Readers ;	Bible Revision, by American Revision Committee.

Having outlined the Railway Library, we come to the distinctive or professional feature, which will be the books it contains, that will be of practical service to engineers, mechanics, firemen, and other employes, viz.: books which relate to the steam engine, telegraphy, civil engineering in some of its branches, car building, track laying, iron, steel, color blindness, etc.: such books on the shelves will entice many men in subordinate positions to work their way up by study and application.

We will mention a few authorities on Railroad Science, naming those first which are published at a moderate price, below five dollars :

RAILROAD SCIENCE.

- Bourne—Hand-Book of Steam Engine ;
- Bourne—Catechism of Steam Engine ;
- Bourne—Recent Improvements in the Steam Engine—new ed., 1876 ;
- Thurston—History of the Growth of the Steam Engine ;
- Ganot's Physics ;
- Balfour Stewart—Lessons in Elementary Physics ;
- Balfour Stewart—Conservation of Energy ;
- Balfour Stewart—Elementary Treatise on Heat ;
- Tyndall on Heat as a Mode of Motion ;
- Auchincloss—Link Valve Motion ;
- Cooke's—The New Chemistry ;
- Wilson's (Robert) Treatise on Steam Boilers ;
- Richard's Steam Engine Indicator, by C. T. Porter ;
- Forney's Catechism of the Locomotive ;
- Williams' (C. Wye) Combustion of Coal ;
- Zerah Colburn's Steam Boiler Explosions ;
- Shreve's Treatise on the Strength of Bridges and Roofs ;
- De Volson Wood on the same subject ;
- De Volson Wood—Strength of Materials ;
- Pope's Modern Practice of the Telegraph (not abreast of the science) ;
- Prescott—Electricity and the Electric Telegraph—3d, 1879.
- Bender's Proportions of Pins used in Bridges ; also Proportions of continuous Bridges ;
- Ede—Management of Steel—5 ed., 1873 ;
- Barry—Railway Appliances ;
- Bauerman's Metallurgy of Iron ;
- Fairbairn—Iron, its History, Properties and Process of Manufacture ;
- Dubois' New Method of Graphical Statics ;
- Hamilton's Useful Information for Railway Men ;
- Poor's Railroad Manual ;
- Haswell's Engineer's and Mechanics' Pocket Book ;
- Reynolds' Locomotive Engine Driving :

Rankine's Rules and Tables ;
 Mahan's Civil Engineering ;
 Wellington's Economic Theory of the Location of Railways (Pub. of
R. R. Gazette, N. Y.) ;
 Thurston's Friction and Lubrication (*R. R. Gazette*) ;
 Car Builder's Dictionary, Ill., in press (*R. R. Gazette*) ;
 Thrupp's History of Coaches ;
 Rood—Modern Chromatics ;
 Chevreul—Contrast of Colors ;
 Dresser—Principles of Decorative Design ;
 Stephenson—Railway Construction—Ed. by Nugent ;
 Two works by F. B. Gardner, published by the Hub Publishing Co.,
 New York, will, we doubt not, be found useful to painters, viz.,
 "Lessons in Lettering," and "Studies in Scrolling," this latter
 being the only work on the subject of carriage, wagon and car
 scrolling.
 Kirkman's Railway Accounts, Revenue ; 2d Ed. ; also Railway Accounts,
 Disbursements ; also Railway Baggage Car Traffic may be added to
 this list ; though not the most satisfactory in their discussion of these
 subjects, yet they are the best we have. These are published by
 the *Railroad Gazette*, as also Huntington's Road-Master's Assistant
 and Section-Master's Guide.

A few higher priced works are very desirable ; we append the prices :

Ball's Elementary Mechanics, \$6.00 ;
 Stoney's Theory of Strains in Girders, \$12.50 ;
 Appleton's Encyclopedia of Drawing, \$10.00 ;
 History and Description of the Pennsylvania R.R., illustrated, \$20.00 ;
 Vose's Manual for R.R. Engineers and Engineering Students, \$12.50 ;
 Trautwine's Civil Engineer's Pocket Book, \$5.00 ;
 Rankine's Civil Engineering, \$6.50 ;
 Clark's Manual of Rules, Tables, &c., for Mechanical Engineers, \$7.50.

To these should be added:

Knight's Mechanical Dictionary, \$24.00, or Appleton's, in process of pub-
 lication.
 Weales' Series of Scientific Works contain a number that would be suit-
 able for such a collection.

The question of color blindness among railroad men is one of vital import-
 ance to the great traveling public, one in which personal safety or peril is in-
 volved. We know of but two treatises in English on this subject, but every
 railway library should have one or both. The earliest treatise is by Prof.
 Holmgren, of Upsala, Sweden, and was published in 1877, entitled *Color
 Blindness and its Relations to Railroads and the Marine*. A translation was
 published in the report for 1877 of the Smithsonian Institute. Since Prof.
 Holmgren's work was published we have had Dr. Jeffries' *Color Blindness, its
 Dangers and its Detection*, in which he copies a good part of Prof. Holmgren's

book; but Dr Jeffries has made 10,000 tests of his own, of which he gives the results. Those who wish to pursue the study further, in German and French, are referred to Hugo Mangus' *Histoire d'Evolution du Sens des Couleurs*, 1878 (History of the Evolution of the Color Sense); Hermann Cohn, *Studien ueber Angeborene Farbenheit*, 1879 (Studies Relating to Innate Color Blindness).

But we must not forget works of a more entertaining and general character, that will relieve the leisure hours of the railroad man, and awaken in him more ardor for his work.

RAILROAD LITERATURE.

Smile's Brief Biographies;

“ Lives of the Engineers, in 5 vols., \$12.50;

“ Industrial Biography;

“ Self Help; Character;

“ Thrift;

Tweedie—The Life and Works of Earnest Men;

Blackwell's Great Facts;

Foucaud's Lives of Illustrious Mechanics;

Wrigley—The Working Man's Way to Wealth;

Railways (in Library of Wonders);

Notes on Railroad Accidents, Charles Francis Adams, Jr.;

Railroads: Their Origin and Problems. Charles Francis Adams, Jr.;

Second Marquis of Worcester's Life (with Century of Inventions);

Life of Thomas Brassey;

Life of Marc Isambard Brunel;

Life of Joseph Locke;

English Hearts and English Hands;

Life of Audubon;

A Light for the Line; or, Life of Thomas Ward;

Stuart, C. B., Lives of Civil and Military Engineers of America;

Stephenson, Robert, Life by J. C. Jeaffreson;

Trevethick, Robert, Life, with an Account of his Inventions, by F.

Trevethick;

Wynne, J., Eminent Scientific Men;

Beckmann's History of Inventions (Bohn's);

Men Who Have Made Themselves;

Timbs, J., Inventors and Discoverers;

Timbs, J., Wonderful Inventions.

Stimson's History of the Express Companies and Origin of American Railroads;

Craik's Pursuit of Knowledge under Difficulties;

Howe—Memoirs of the most Eminent Mechanics;

Edgar—Boyhood of Great Men;

Hodgkinson, Eaton, Memoir of, by R. Rawson;

Read, Nathan, His Invention of the High Pressure Engine, by D. Read;

Taylor—The World on Wheels.

Reynolds—The Model Locomotive Engineer.

Edison and his Inventions.

Life of Isambard K. Brunel.

Rogers—The Law of the Road, or Wrongs and Rights of a Traveler.

Many, if not all, of the scientific publications named, can be purchased at Van Nostrand's Scientific Book Store in New York City.

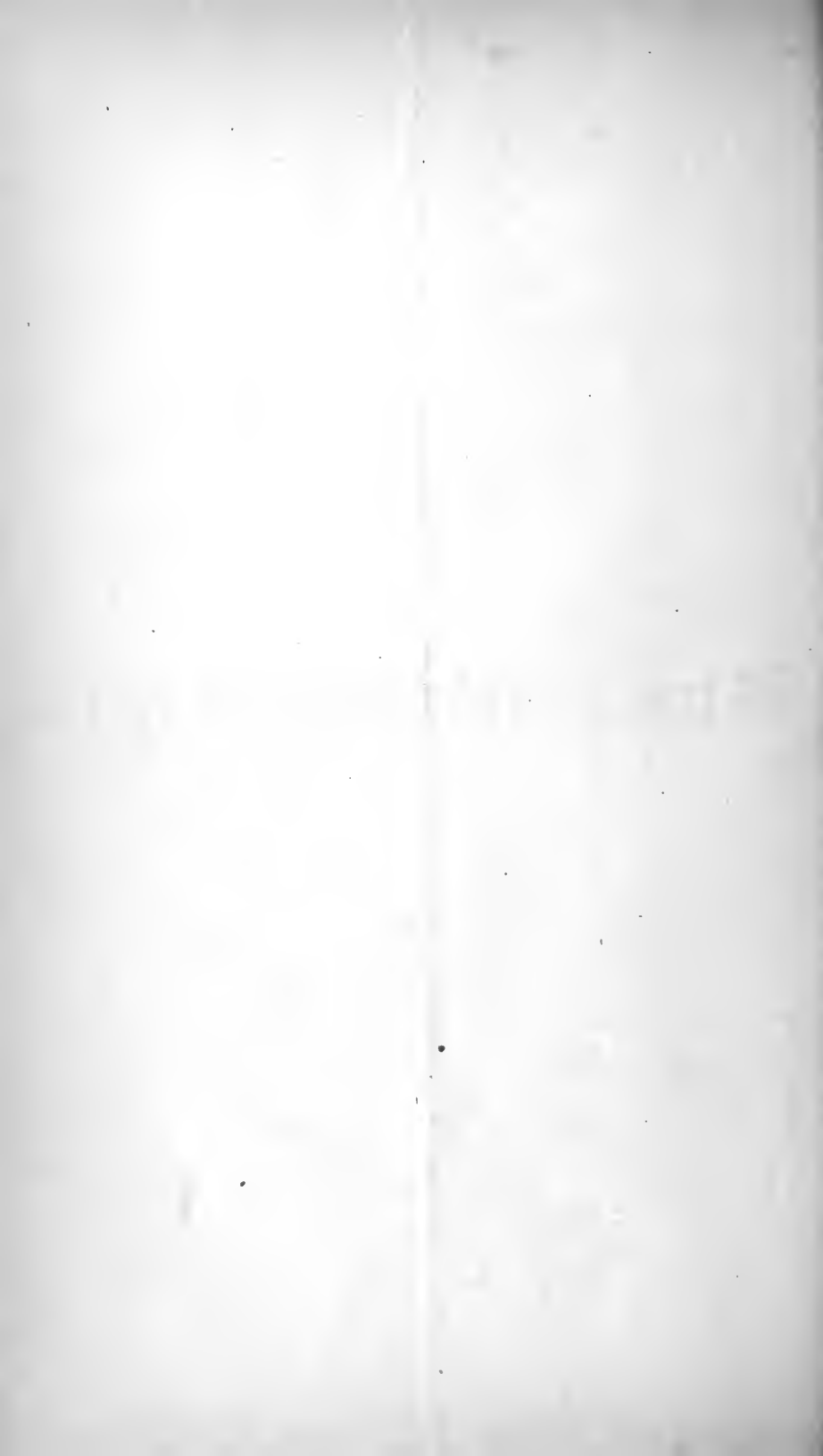
We have indicated, with as much fullness as our space will allow, the lines of books, for such a library as will meet the requirements of Railroad men.

One word as to the administration. As soon as your library is large enough, classify the books on the shelves. At the very outset commence an "Accession Catalogue" entering each book as it is received. This catalogue will be the librarian's private record or history of the books. Books ruled for the purpose of such a record, as well as other library appliances, are now supplied by the American Library Association at Boston. Such a book will contain something like the following: Date of reception, numerical number of the book as recorded (which is written also in the book, on the book plate), title, author, publisher, date of publication, size of volume, book number, binding, price, or if a gift, donor's name. The trouble of keeping such a book is not great, but gives much satisfaction. You can refer at once from the red ink or accession number in the book, to this detailed account. As you will not be likely to print a catalogue at once, commence a Card Catalogue, arranged according to authors and subjects, on what is called the dictionary plan. Rules for such a catalogue are published by the Bureau of Education at Washington.

If the books are intended to be read only in the rooms, then each reader should be required to specify on a blank, the book he requires, with his signature. This will serve as a receipt for the book. The signature to be surrendered when the book is returned, but the specification of the book retained. From the memoranda thus reserved, statistics of the number and kind of books read, can be made up and preserved.

If, on the other hand, the books circulate, then open an account in a ledger with each borrower. This is the simplest form, and doubtless the best for small libraries. The borrower's page should contain his name and number, and the book should be ruled with five columns, for shelf, number of book, number of volume, date of drawing, and date of return. Never cancel reader's account by erasing.

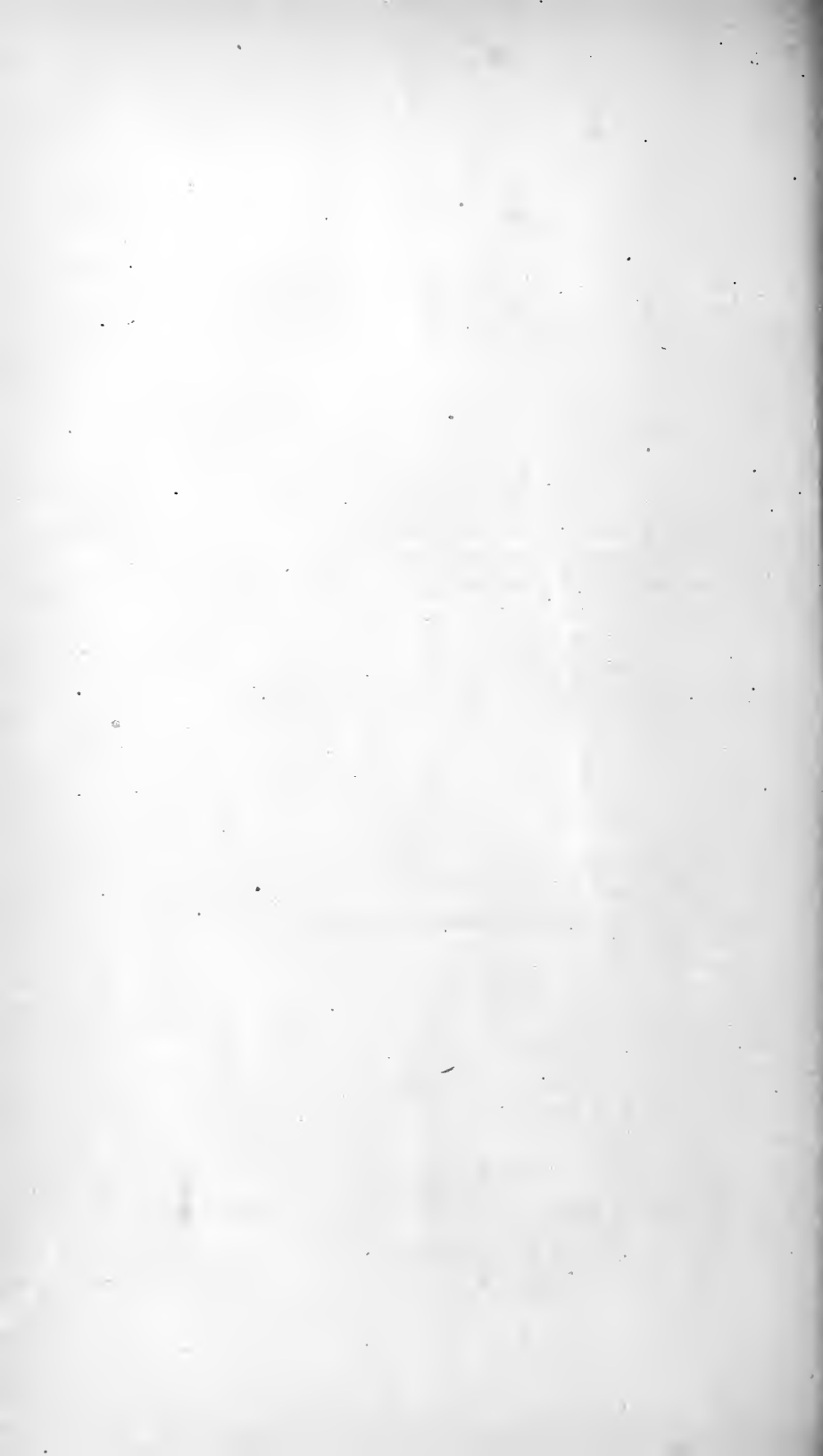
Let a library, though small, be kept in order—under proper restrictions, and with a generous regard to the requirements of readers in the supply of appropriate books—and you may look for prosperity and growth.



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Knox Manuscripts.



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THE
KNOX MANUSCRIPTS:

BEING THE SUBSTANCE
OF A REPORT MADE AT THE ANNUAL MEETING OF THE NEW ENGLAND
HISTORIC GENEALOGICAL SOCIETY, JANUARY 5, 1881, ON THE AR-
RANGEMENT AND BINDING OF THE MANUSCRIPTS PRESENTED TO
THE SOCIETY BY THE LATE REAR ADMIRAL HENRY K.
THATCHER, WITH PRACTICAL OBSERVATIONS ON THE
PROPER DISPOSITION OF OLD MANUSCRIPT
LETTERS AND OTHER DOCUMENTS.

BY THE REV. EDMUND F. SLAFTER, A.M.,
CORRESPONDING SECRETARY OF THE SOCIETY, ETC. ETC.

BOSTON:
THE SOCIETY'S HOUSE, 18 SOMERSET STREET.
M. DCCC. LXXXI.

PRESS OF DAVID CLAPP & SON,
564 Washington Street.

THE KNOX MANUSCRIPTS.

THIS important collection of manuscripts was presented to the New England Historic Genealogical Society, in a written communication dated the 26th day of May, 1873, from Rear-Admiral Henry Knox Thatcher, of the United States Navy, the grandson of General Henry Knox to whom these papers originally belonged. They relate to a great number of subjects, treated in a familiar correspondence by a large number of distinguished persons, covering the most interesting and important period in the history of the United States. Among the writers of these letters are Washington, LaFayette, Greene, Lincoln, Wayne, Steuben, the officers of Rochambeau's army, Rufus King, Stephen Higginson, Nathaniel Gorham and others.

This collection of papers was given to our Society on condition that they should be bound in volumes suitable for their permanent preservation, and indexed in order to facilitate their use by the historical student. The first named condition has been complied with by your committee, and this vast collection is now securely and superbly arranged, filling fifty-five massive folio volumes. The fulfilment of the second condition, the indexing of the volumes, has been placed in charge of the same committee, and is at the present time in process of accomplishment.*

It is now more than a hundred years since most of these letters and papers were written. They have been almost miraculously preserved from the casualties of fire, the wasting influences of atmospheric changes, the mould and dissolving power of time. "It was the habit of General Knox," says his grandson, Admiral Thatcher, in a letter addressed to the writer, "to file carefully all letters and documents of value, endorsing dates, etc. For years after his de-

* The Rev. Edmund F. Slafter and Mr. John Ward Dean were appointed a committee to superintend the arrangement and binding of the Knox Manuscripts; and have now in charge the indexing of the volumes, which is going forward under their direction.

"cease they remained in their receptacle. Nearly forty years since, "the Hon. Charles S. Daveis, of Portland, having been recommended by Jared Sparks, Esq., as a gentleman competent in all "respects to write a memoir of Knox, and Mr. Daveis having expressed a willingness to undertake the task, the papers were placed "in his hands for that purpose. He had made considerable progress "in the undertaking, when ill health obliged him to abandon the "work. Thirteen years later Joseph Willard, Esq., of Boston, undertook the memoir, but he died before its completion."

In 1873 the papers were again loaned to enable the "Massachusetts Society of the Cincinnati" to prepare a brief memoir of General Knox for the "Memorial" of that Society. "I then had "the honor," adds Admiral Thatcher, "of presenting the papers "amounting to fifty-six large port-folios to the New England Historic Genealogical Society, where they are now being beautifully "and expensively arranged and bound for preservation, and will "without doubt prove of great value to the future historian as well "as highly interesting to the present and future generations.

"The index which is to be prepared for these volumes will greatly "facilitate the explorer, and add immensely to their value.

"It is said that the Knox papers were sent by a vessel from Portland, Me., to Boston, and that this vessel was wrecked *en route*, "and the boxes containing them were for some time submerged, "though they bear very little evidence of having been injured."

We have already spoken of the marvellous preservation of these manuscripts amid the vicissitudes to which they have been exposed. But they have not altogether escaped the casualties which often attend such collections. While they were reposing safely, as was supposed, in the attic of the Knox mansion, in Thomaston, in the State of Maine, they appear to have been visited by the voracious herd of autograph seekers, not so numerous then as now, but sufficiently so to commit injuries which are serious and irreparable.

But the losses sustained were probably confined mostly to the Washington letters. It will be remembered that when Admiral Thatcher presented the Knox Manuscripts to the Society, the Washington letters were not at that time given, but merely deposited with us for safe keeping. The following extracts from a letter addressed to the present writer, who had solicited the absolute gift

of the Washington letters to the Society, contain two facts that deserve to be placed on record.

"My thoughts often revert," says Admiral Thatcher, "to that correspondence, but always with sadness and I may say with anger, when I think of the many thoughtless persons who were permitted to visit the attic of the Knox mansion, and tear from their receptacles the neatly filed and beautifully arranged, life-long correspondence of Knox. The consequence is that very many valuable letters have been plundered, and scattered over the world. Parties, who were permitted to visit the attic, tore hundreds of letters from their pigeon-holes in search of autographs, and many of the letters which I succeeded in rescuing are robbed of their signatures, as you will observe, and in such a manner as to indicate the use of scissors, which fully proves that the object of these visitors was plunder, and that they went prepared for it. But it is now too late to do more than preserve what we have left. I fully agree with you, my dear sir, that on many accounts it would be desirable to bind the original letters of Washington, in the collection of material now in process of arrangement, for which purpose I now present them to the noble institution, of which I have the honor to be a member, viz., the New England Historic Genealogical Society, with a respectful request that you will cause them to be bound into the beautiful volumes now being arranged by Dr. Fogg. Your remarks relative to the 'Dearborn papers' have caused the same feeling of indignation that you have expressed."

The reception of this letter completed the gift of the whole Knox collection of manuscripts to our Society. The number of letters and documents in the entire collection is ELEVEN THOUSAND FOUR HUNDRED AND SIXTY-FOUR. In this number is included the WASHINGTONIANA, comprising sixty-six manuscripts. Thirty-four of them are letters written and signed by Washington. Fifteen are letters signed by Washington, but written by another hand. One is a note written by Washington but not signed. Sixteen are letters signed by Washington, but the signatures have been cut out, probably by the nimble scissors which Admiral Thatcher has described as figuring with such painful reality in the attic of the Knox mansion at Thomaston in Maine.

The magnitude and importance of the collection led the committee

to direct their attention first of all to the choice of a method of binding the volumes, which should adequately preserve their contents to the remotest period, and at the same time be in every respect worthy of these precious manuscripts.

After wide inquiry and considerable correspondence, they determined in order to secure the best material for the volumes, to select and purchase it themselves, and place it in the hands of a binder of recognized thoroughness and skill. The paper finally selected to form the leaves to which the manuscripts are attached is composed of the ordinary material of our paper combined with a portion of manila hemp, whose tough fibre imparts to the paper great durability and strength. The leather for the backs and corners is the best Turkey morocco, and green was selected as a color more likely to withstand the powerful influences of light and atmospheric changes. The binding was done by Macdonald and Sons of Boston, and was executed in the most satisfactory manner.

The volumes having been completed, the preparation and arrangement of the manuscripts in them was a matter of great importance, as it could not be entrusted to inexperienced or unskilful hands. The anxiety of the committee was however entirely relieved when Dr. John S. H. Fogg, a member of the Society, and eminently loyal to its highest interests and success, consented to undertake the work. It was a great satisfaction to place this responsible duty in the hands of one who had such unusual qualifications as were possessed by Dr. Fogg, whose knowledge of old manuscripts and skill in handling them are perhaps only equalled in New England by his accomplished wife, whose delicate manipulation may be detected on every folio of this vast collection.

The manuscripts were not in a condition to be placed immediately in the volumes. The dust of more than a century had gathered upon them. They were not only stained and discolored, but many of them were torn and broken by rough handling, in the numerous changes through which they had passed. More than seven thousand of them were consequently submitted to a process of washing, requiring patience, judgment and the utmost delicacy of handling, and afterwards dried under pressure between sheets of blotting paper, frequently changed and replaced. The remaining four thousand were carefully wet and dried under pressure in the same manner, in order to remove

the wrinkles and inequalities occasioned by the original folding. All the mutilated letters or documents, from which any part had been torn away, were repaired by inserting a fragment of paper, which corresponded, as nearly as possible, with the original as to age, fibre and water-mark. After repairing, each manuscript was dried under pressure, as had before been done after washing. They were then pasted into the volume, in chronological order, with blotting paper inserted between the leaves, and the entire book, when completed, was subjected to pressure for some days, in order that each document should be left smooth and without wrinkle.

In completing his work, which extended through many patient and industrious months, Dr. Fogg placed at his own expense, in the first volume, an excellent engraved likeness of General Knox after the painting by Edward Savage; a wood engraving of the house in which Knox was born, a part of which is still standing in Federal Street in this city, opposite the New York and New England railway station, but soon to be demolished on the extension of Essex Street already determined upon by the city authorities; likewise a photograph representation of the Knox mansion at Thomaston in Maine, which has already passed away, and the old brick farm-house contiguous now figures as the Thomaston railway station. Our hearty thanks were duly tendered to Dr. Fogg for these memorials.

The committee have caused the correspondence of Admiral Thatcher relating to these manuscripts to be placed likewise in the early part of the first volume.

Among the manuscripts were found several printed documents or pamphlets more or less nearly connected with General Knox, which he had carefully preserved. These are to be bound together for preservation, and kept as an appendage to this collection of manuscripts.

We have thus described with some minuteness the processes through which these papers have passed, in order that you may comprehend the vastness and thoroughness of the work, which has brought these eleven thousand four hundred and sixty-four manuscripts into the condition in which you see them before you to-day. They are now arranged in their natural order, in coverings of generous richness, strength and durability, and deposited in our STRONG-ROOM fortified by double walls of iron and mason-work against the encroachments

of fire, they will in all human probability repose in safety down through many generations.

These manuscripts thus placed, constitute a memorial to General Knox, far richer and vastly more interesting than any monument of stone or bronze that could be erected to his memory. They breathe the atmosphere in which he lived; they tell the story of his life; in the words of his compeers they rehearse the sentiments, grave or trivial, joyous or sad, that occupied his attention; they embalm the struggles, the anxieties, the cares, the sacrifices, the generous ambitions and unflinching activities of this noble patriot during a most important period in our national history. We cannot express too strongly our admiration of the good sense and excellent judgment of the late Admiral Thatcher, in thus placing these memorials of his grandfather, where they will always be guarded as a sacred trust, where they will always be kept together, intact and inseparable, the best and richest source of his personal history, as well as that of the country, at least for many years, which in its wars and in its councils, he so faithfully served. Had they not thus been wisely disposed of during the life-time of Admiral Thatcher, these manuscripts might, and doubtless would have been scattered to the four winds, and would have been as useless for any exalted purpose as were the fabled Sibylline leaves in their dispersion.

A painful illustration of neglect in preserving important manuscripts is familiar to many of us in the utter loss, for any important purpose, of the Dearborn collection to which Admiral Thatcher alluded, in his correspondence already cited, with outspoken indignation. The letters addressed to General Henry Dearborn, during his long public career, and those addressed to his son in a career perhaps not less distinguished, were carefully arranged by the latter gentleman and bound in volumes for preservation as an act of filial piety and family pride. They filled eleven quarto volumes. In notes and prefaces to these volumes General Dearborn expressed with emphasis his wish that they should always remain in the family. Only twenty-five years after his death, they passed into the hands of a collector, and were finally torn from their bindings, sold at auction for a paltry sum of money, and scattered far and wide, never again to be collected together, never again to tell the story of what these two distinguished men had been, or what they had done in their eventful

lives. Could the late General Dearborn know what befel this correspondence, which for years he had perused so reverently, and which he had preserved so tenderly, we cannot fail to believe that his lofty spirit would be fired with a justifiable, but, nevertheless, helpless indignation. Collections once separated and scattered can never be recalled. Even their possessors are generally unknown. The historian's search for them is utterly baffled, and their usefulness, as historical documents, is for the most part gone.

Not long since a person, whom I well know, came into possession, I may say accidentally, of twenty or thirty letters, written by one of the most distinguished men that this country has produced, addressed to his farmer, on a great variety of practical topics relating to agriculture.

These letters were held by this accidental possessor for free distribution to miscellaneous friends as autographs, to be laid away as curiosities, after a few years to be forgotten, to be mingled with refuse papers, to find their way into the waste basket, and lastly into the fire or into the paper-mill. By thus scattering these papers a wrong, utterly beyond the power of reparation, was done to the memory of this distinguished man. In these letters was the best, if not the only material in existence, for one of the most interesting and important chapters in this great man's life. The means of writing that chapter, as it ought to be written, are now gone. If his biographer touches upon the subject at all, he will deal in cold generalities, while the soul and spirit which these letters might have imparted will be entirely wanting.

The collector of autographs does that sometimes, perhaps unwittingly, which he would not be proud to own. He is undoubtedly inspired by an instinct which we all have in common. The desire to possess some memorial of the distinguished living or the distinguished dead, is not an ignoble sentiment. When the collector gathers together fugitive letters, scattered here and there, that he may illustrate some important historical event, or as memorials of distinguished actors in scenes of stirring interest in the past, such as were the signers of the declaration of American independence, the early governors of a commonwealth, or the officers who bravely achieved our great national victories, he is undoubtedly inspired by a lofty purpose, especially if these letters are to be kept permanently to-

gether, and to be deposited in the archives of some public institution, which has the means and disposition to preserve them. But when the sentiment that animates him forgets its loyalty to history, and oversteps the field to which it properly belongs, and lays its eager hand upon a unique correspondence, bound together by the unseen cord of some social, historical, literary or scientific interest, it becomes a species of vandalism, which no generous mind can respect. It places itself upon a level with those vagabonds, who chip and deface our public monuments, erected at great expense and covered with inscriptions and significant emblems, that they may carry away with them worthless mementos of their more worthless and insignificant journeyings.

The proper and safe disposition of old manuscripts is to place them in the custody of a chartered Society, or Library, whose organization and local importance give it a reasonable title to perpetuity, which has moreover a fire-proof apartment, where these truth-telling witnesses of the past may be kept in security, and be consulted by the historian, or by the members of the family which placed them there, down to the latest generation. The attempt to transmit manuscript letters or papers of any sort in the family is impracticable. In ninety-nine cases out of a hundred it proves abortive. The richest collection gradually wastes away. In a few generations the family interest becomes weakened, autograph collectors, friends and distant relatives, beg each as a special favor something from the collection, until at length every thing most worthy of preservation has disappeared. Such a result as this is the rule to which there are but rare exceptions. Where one collection survives three generations, hundreds are lost beyond recovery. And so long as they remain in the family, they are generally inaccessible for any historical or important use. If you place your old manuscript letters and papers in the care of an institution which has the means of protecting and preserving them, your interest in them will not cease, your associations with them will not be lost, but will be intensified and enlarged. You will realize, in spite of the apparent contradiction, that by giving them away they have in fact become more your own than they ever were before. You will add to your interest in them and your associations with them in the past, a knowledge of their fixed, permanent and satisfactory

condition in the future. You will have withdrawn them from obscurity and uselessness, and have elevated them into the possibilities of historical service and importance. With a sentiment kindred to filial affection for these relics, you will have given them a settled abode, a permanent and inalienable home, where they will always be ready to tell their story to generations to come, as they have been to you and to others that are gone. When you have thus done all in your power to perpetuate their existence and their usefulness, they will not be less but more precious and dear to you than they have ever been in the past.

It may therefore be said with emphasis to the members of this Society, and to all others who have inherited old manuscript letters or documents of any sort relating to social life, or events in the past, to religion, to education, to science, to literature or to art, that they can be permanently preserved by transferring them to the archives of this Society. Here they will be properly arranged. Here they will always be open to your inspection. Here they will testify to the wisdom and sound sense of the donor. However trivial the narratives they contain may seem to you now, they, nevertheless, enter into and constitute an integral part of our history, and will be sure, at some future day, to shed their light, it may be where least expected, but, nevertheless, where it will most be needed. A letter of a hundred years ago, dealing with private and domestic affairs of little moment in themselves, may contain a date or a name, or an incidental statement or allusion, that may solve the mystery that has brooded for years over some historical question of interest and importance. It is never safe to say that the contents of an old letter describe only domestic and local events, and therefore are of no historical importance. These simple and homely statements were doubtless of little moment when they were recorded, but time has lifted them into importance, because they now testify to facts of which there are no other witnesses living or dead. In these old family letters the patient historian often makes his richest discoveries, and when, as a reward of his researches, he finds a name, an incident or a date which supplies a missing link in his long line of investigations, the soiled, time-worn and neglected document assumes a new aspect and a new value in his sight. It becomes henceforth as a jeweled coffer containing "apples of gold in pictures of silver." We may well, therefore, con-

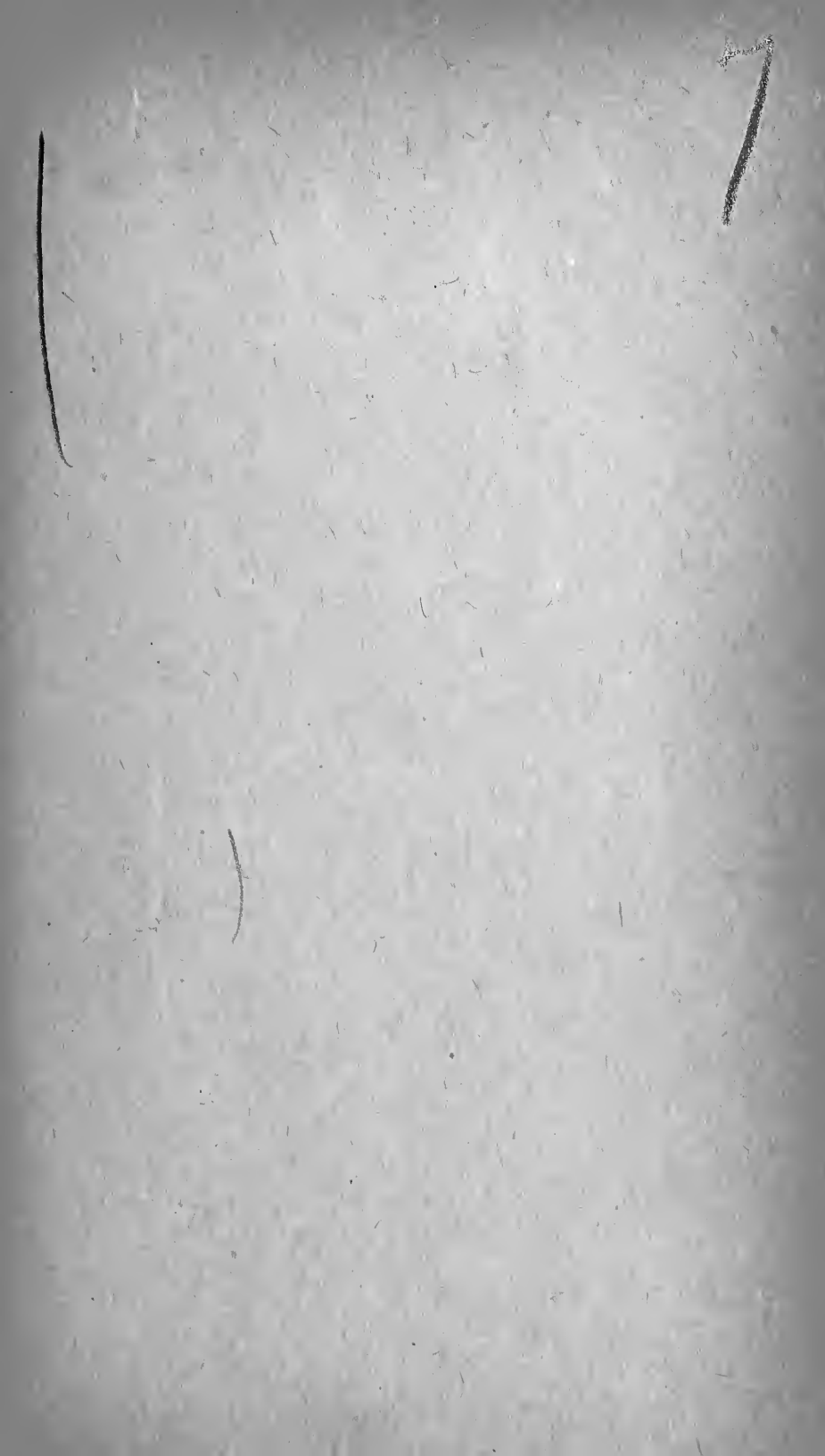
sider it our duty to save the letters and manuscript documents which we have inherited from the past, whether they be many or few, from the mould and waste of time and the casualties of fire, by placing them in the STRONG-ROOM OF THIS SOCIETY, where they will not only survive, but be useful to other generations; where, like old wine, they will acquire the value and preciousness which time is sure to impart.

No prudent or thoughtful man can persuade himself that manuscripts, which cannot be duplicated, are safe in a private dwelling, subject to the casualties of fire, the insidious book-worm, and the more dangerous agency of ignorant and careless servants. Our Society was organized and incorporated to be a coadjutor and trustee of those who may desire to preserve their manuscripts from the accidents to which they are exposed. On this point the second article of our Constitution is sufficiently explicit:

"The objects of the Society shall be to collect, PRESERVE and "disseminate the local and general history of New England, and "the genealogy of New England families."

The preservation of our history includes especially manuscript letters and papers which are original and unique. To fulfil this design of our incorporation, there has been constructed at considerable expense, within the walls of the Society's House, a strong-room, girt about with stable mason-work and iron girders, a complete protection, it is believed, against the encroachments of fire. Here there is the strongest moral certainty that your manuscripts may be safely preserved. It is the office of the Society to act as the permanent trustee of her members and of all others, who may wish to perpetuate the existence and usefulness of manuscript letters, journals and papers, by placing them in her care. Is it not far better to deposit them where they will be both safe and useful, rather than to leave them exposed to the casualties, uncertainties and threatening dangers to which we have referred in the preceding pages.







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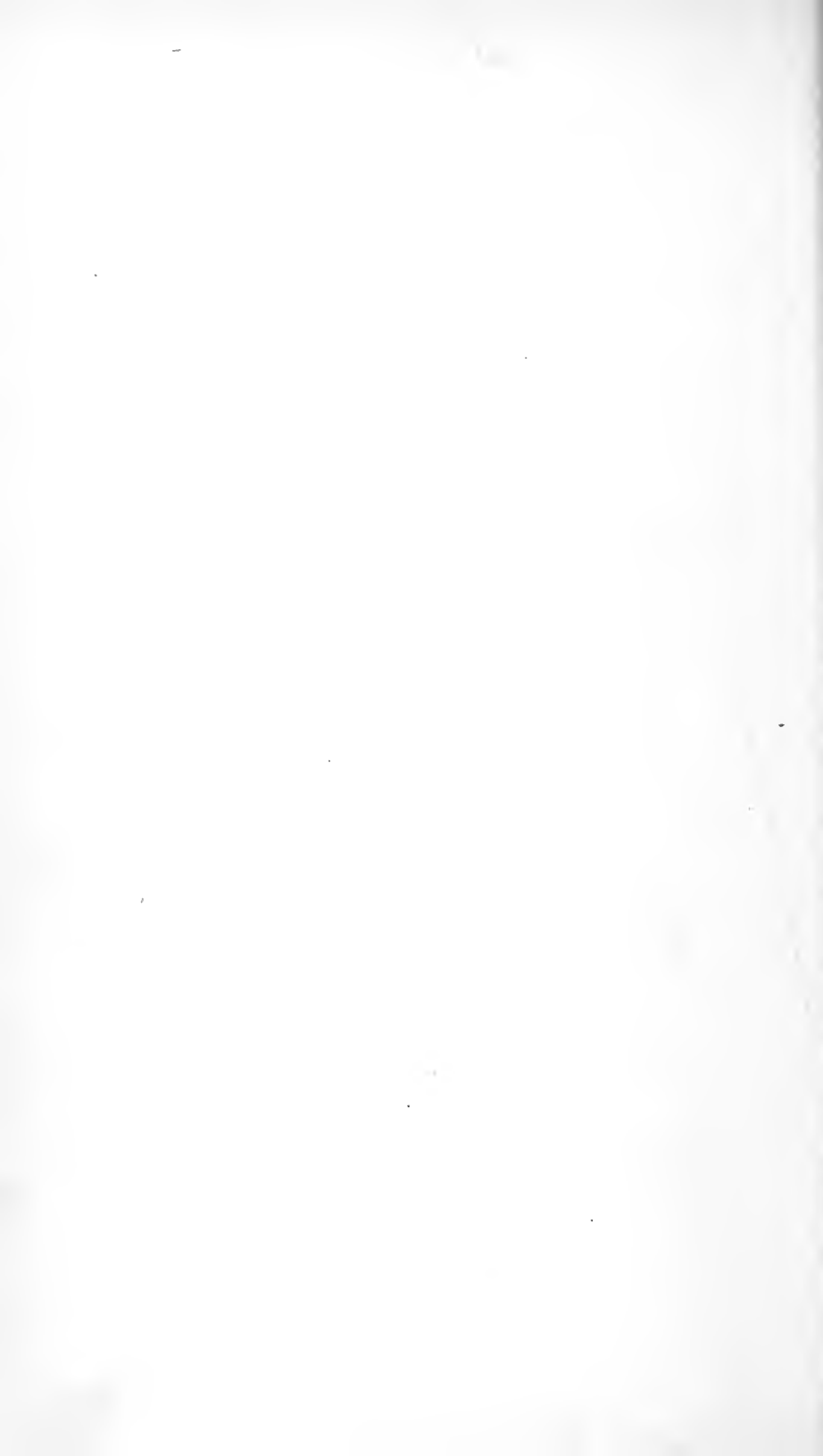
AMERICAN COLLEGE LIBRARIES.

BY

REV. FREDERICK VINTON, A. M.,

LIBRARIAN OF THE COLLEGE OF NEW JERSEY,

PRINCETON. N. J.



AMERICAN COLLEGE LIBRARIES.

Since the venerable clergy of Connecticut assembled, in 1700, to found Yale College, laid their forty folios upon a table, each saying, "I give these books for the founding of a college in this colony," the shelves of American college libraries have been stored with theology and sacred learning in far larger proportion than with other literature and science. An examination of the catalogue of Harvard College library, printed in 1830, when it contained at least fifty thousand volumes, shows that more than a tenth of the titles described theological works. Judging from the systematic index, one would think the proportion to be a fifth. Few other colleges have been able to print their library catalogues; but those of Brown University, and Bowdoin College, exhibit the same general truth. At Princeton the proportion is one-sixth. Such facts are explained by the original design of our early colleges, to rear a Christian ministry for the country; and they indicate, of course, the larger ratio which theological studies once bore to the whole culture of mankind. We who live in the new world of thought and acquisition, have need of other nutriment; and he who should feed on this alone, would be as unfit for the intercourse of present life, as the geologic fauna for the present condition of the earth. College libraries remind us too strongly yet of that ancient time; they have not a due proportion of the new learning, literature and science. In the Bowdoin catalogue, (1873), the titles of books written by authors whose names begin with A, fill 35 pages, and are in number say 525. Of these, only 116 are on subjects not theological, or were printed within this century. The whole catalogue has 742 pages, and about 11,200 titles. If the proportion throughout be the same, the whole number of books not antiquated, and not religious, is only 2,436; a small supply for the actual wants of a college. A similar examination of the Providence catalogue, indicates that about a quarter of the whole is theological or ancient. Old books are charming to the bibliophile; but college students need something else than curiosities, or even profound erudition. Learning flourished before our time, but science is mainly of

recent growth It is in scientific books of a high character that the destitution is greatest, and it is probably because of this high character, and the attendant cost. Often, the best are in French or German, and of commensurate price. These would often be shunned by the student, from the difficulty of reading them ; but this should not deter the professors. Such books are the means by which the instructor gains and keeps his fitness for his place; and the supply of such should be equal to his wants. The reputation of the college, and the interest of the student, demand it. But in the existing state of American college libraries, the difficulty of procuring them amounts almost to a prohibition, and often imposes on the ill-appointed professor the cruel necessity of paying with his own money for the instruments with which he is to effect his pupils' good. Teachers and students are thus threatened with atrophy, and the generations which pass through college during the period of poverty, may always retain the dwarf proportions which naturally proceed from insufficient aliment in youth.

In the public library of the city of Boston are preserved the manuscripts of Nathaniel Bowditch, whose name was the pride of mathematical science in youthful America. Among these, in twenty-one volumes, quarto and folio, is his Common-place book, consisting in great part of whole mathematical treatises, which he was too poor to buy, and therefore copied out with his own hand. But this was at the end of the last century and at the beginning of this. Is not America now too rich to let "penury repress the noble rage" of her scientific sons?

College libraries are often rich in books which students do not want, and poor in books which students need. The library of the College of New Jersey has the first three polyglots of the Scriptures, twenty-four volumes folio, glorious monuments of learning; but college students have no occasion for them. It possesses the *Annales Ecclesiastici* of Baronius, in thirteen volumes folio; and the publications of the Record Commission of Great Britain, eighty-four folios of crabbed, abbreviated, barbarous Latinity, coming down from the middle ages. In a century, probably they would not be consulted a hundred times. Fifty years ago, in setting up an academy in Maine, Martin Chemnitz' *Examen concilii tridentini*, was given to help educate frontier children. Oftentimes also, the literary and scientific

possessions of a library have become antiquated, and therefore useless or unattractive. This is manifested by the slender attendance of borrowers when the library is open, by the proportion of those who enter and take nothing away, and by the small ratio of the loans in a year, or even in a college generation, to the whole mass of the library. By all these indications it appears that our college libraries are of little use to the students, much as they need and wish for help. It is a misnomer to call such a collection a library. The disappointment it produces is suited to discourage and disgust the inquirer. It is a mockery of curiosity and research. Students are entitled to complain that the books they find in such libraries are inferior to the very text-books they are using, instead of conducting to higher levels of science. They find themselves everywhere met by walls and ditches, forbidding advance in the directions indicated in the lecture-room, or the manual of the class. In justice it must be said of those who resort to college libraries, that they are truly in earnest; the books they borrow are of a superior sort, intended for study, and not for recreation. Oftentimes all the scanty stock of good books pertaining to a subject prescribed to a class, or a society, will be seized by the first comers; the rest can only appeal to the courtesy of the fortunate, or wait till perhaps the hour of interest, or of distinction, has gone by. Considering the procession of alert and ambitious minds yearly passing through our colleges, and that the necessities arising from occasion and from character are continually changing, the supply of books should be large, varied, and often recruited. Properly regarded, a library is a dictionary, in which all words should be inserted, certainly the newest, that each may be found as occasion requires. We know what to think of him who has no dictionary, or who never opens it, or who is content with a scanty manual. He is, and must remain, in a rank like that of the barbarous tribes or stolid peasants, whose whole dialect consists of a few hundred words. How differently we think of him who owns and continually consults lexicons of all languages, dictionaries of all sciences, encyclopædias of the largest capacity. Such is the apparatus found in the reading-room of the British Museum; found also in part in every great newspaper office—one of the best universities in the world. It may not be wise indeed, for a young man to “take all knowledge for his province,” since

no mind can contain all that is known by all. But any person may at some time have occasion for any variety of knowledge ; and, for a great body of students the supply should be varied and ample.

Aside from the study of text-books prescribed by authority, one of the most precious parts of a man's education in college, is that which he gives himself, by following the bent of his own nature in a course of reading. A judicious parent may well hesitate at restricting the reading of his children (except in the case of frivolous or mischievous books), or at prescribing a course of reading for them. The natural appetite of a healthy mind, like those of the inferior animals, may be relied on to produce good results, if left to its normal impulse. College requisitions therefore, in the form of tasks imposed, ought not to be multiplied so far that the student shall have no time to gratify the passion he may feel for voluntary acquisition. It may well be questioned whether the knowledge to which a man of himself inclines, is not worth more than what he acquires because he is bidden. In the latter he may have to row against wind and tide ; in the former, the force of his nature seconds his exertions ; the difference in progress, therefore, will be measured by twice the force of the stream. Books which suit him, and time to read them, are the demand of his nature. For want of liberty of choice in childhood and in college life, early tastes are often blighted, or kept in check, till the hard necessity of working for bread, and a removal from the neighborhood of books, have made it impossible to develop them.

The choice of books for libraries should therefore be guided by consummate discretion, ever keeping in mind the various tastes of men. The personal preference of the librarian should be restrained by the severest conscientiousness. Most libraries have grown to be what they are, under the control of capricious causes. In great measure, they are the bequest of professional men, unloading their shelves when they die. But law, medicine, and theology are not suitable studies for college students. A systematic regard to what constitutes a good education, ought to guide every selection. What a young man needs first to know, is more of that which he has already acquired in part. His earliest reading in college should supplement his previous knowledge. Some men have a passion for books of travel, acquainting them with all parts of the planet. They would follow

Ulysses to the cities of many people, and know their mind. It is argonautism without peril or fatigue. It is a foundation for liberalism of thought and feeling. The "Description of the Earth," as learned in books of travel, especially in European countries, is a necessary preparation for a creditable reception in society. Not to know Europe is not to understand the papers, or be able to judge of what they say. So many persons born abroad are among our adopted citizens, and so many of our own people now go abroad every year, that he who cannot follow must read books of travel, or stand at a mortifying disadvantage. Such books, well chosen, on every important country of Europe, the library should provide, and the student will gladly read.

Other men have an equal appetite for history. They are ashamed not to know who lived on this planet before them, and what they did. By every means should these inborn passions be fostered. It is the duty of every college to provide largely for a knowledge especially of American history. Our nation is to the full as unique in modern times as Israel was in ancient. God's providence has made use of each as a lighthouse for the world. Perpetuating the knowledge of that providence is one means of perpetuating the blessings which distinguish us above all other people. On the back of his colossal statue of Washington, standing before the American capitol, Greenough chiselled these words: "*Simulachrum istud, in magnum libertatis exemplum, nec sine ipsa duraturum, faciebat Horatius Greenough.*" Whatever the truth of the inscription as it stands, it is certainly true that American institutions endure on condition of the continued knowledge of American history and principles among us. If the robust and comely hero of this western Israel forgets his parentage and his history, "then shall he become weak, and be as another man." It is the imperative duty of American colleges to make known the history of our republic and of our fathers. But, it is not enough to know it in the gross, and in manuals; it must be known also in particulars, and in original sources. How shall we be sure that Bancroft has given us the true history of our revolution, unless we have the contemporary narratives? Our history is the history of principles discovered, defended and maintained; we learn the principles, in learning what it cost to establish them. Within the present

century, every considerable nation of Europe has been reprinting its old historians, and bringing to light its mediæval records. Our government leaves such enterprises to local historical societies. American colleges should help to cultivate, diffuse and impress this knowledge. Yet there is no college library except that of Harvard, which has a satisfactory collection of such books; nor probably any in which may be found the original authors quoted by Irving, Prescott, and Parkman for their histories of French and Spanish America. Original editions, indeed, of contemporary narratives are now too costly for purchase by any but the wealthy. But the reprints of colonial and state histories and other local narratives, ought to be secured; for without these we miss the true position and original coloring employed to represent the career and institutions of our fathers. Our own history thus examined, becomes, moreover, "the fore-school" to all historical research; and in it the student may learn to weigh evidence, and believe none but contemporaries. If this were the sole result of such inquiries, it would be an ample reward.

A form of history peculiarly attractive to the young, and very effective in its influence over them, is biography. When the excellence which they have admired from afar is brought near in the record of its daily life, and when the steps by which it was attained are made visible, the hope of imitating if not of equaling it is awakened, and a mighty stimulus applied. How great the influence of Edwards' Biographies of self-taught men, and Craik's "Pursuit of Knowledge under Difficulties."

"Lives of great men all remind us
We may make *our* lives sublime."

This is the most nutritious fertilizer we can lay on the hot-bed of student life.

A still larger class have a natural bent toward the sciences of observation in respect to organic forms. College libraries are commonly ill-provided with books of natural science. The successful investigation of nature made within this century is prodigious. The whole mass of books in the world has received a sudden increase, like that which followed the invention of printing. The scientific press is prolific as nature herself. The subdivision of topics, the number of monographs, and the amount of discovery, are enormous. The new disclosure of powers in nature, or of infinite variety in her forms, has roused man to un-

wonted exertion, and seemed to endow him with penetration above his own. But, on the shelves of some colleges, a mere twilight of information, proceeding from a few elementary books, is all that answers to this broad illumination. Students of such colleges must remain children in science, incapable of independent views or of original inquiry. Every department of natural science deserves an alcove of books, and a museum of specimens.

It is not necessary to plead here that American colleges be supplied with the means of classical instruction, or of linguistic inquiry; for these claims have been always allowed; and in these departments, college shelves are most likely to be creditably furnished. What may be most needed is the addition of the new to the old.

Money is often wasted in libraries in the purchase of inferior literature. Why should any be bought or read, except the best? Considered as a means of education the perusal of inferior authors is worse than waste. Those who fixed the curriculum of classical study, chose the noblest models. They set us to reading Virgil and Cicero, Livy and Tacitus. They selected for us extracts from Homer, Herodotus, Xenophon and Thucydides; from the greatest tragedians and orators, critics and philosophers. They have not given us the Augustan history because it is interesting; Callimachus, or the Greek novelists, because they are attractive. Nothing but the best, was the principle of their selection. And why should we read a hundred volumes of British poets, many of them insipid as lymph, instead of fixing our attention on the ten who deserve it? The misfortune of youthful indiscriminate reading is not only that it wastes time, but enfeebles the taste. Until there are professorships of poetry and history, of criticism and oratory, let librarians keep the door against all but the highest and strongest writers.

But there ought to be these professorships of literature. Why not, as well as of science? What nobler lessons can be learned at college than those which history, for instance, is inspired to teach? History is a book of charts by which statesmen sail; he who does not study it may steer his country upon rocks. There ought to be lectures on the age of Lord Bacon, lighting up the twilight of Tudor misrule, and helping us better to know why our fathers came here. There ought to be professorships of Shakespearean literature, charged to set forth the grandeur

of his philosophy, the subtle gradations of his comparative psychology, and the strong simplicity of his phrase. There ought to be lectures on the prose works of Milton, teaching from them the principles of political science, and bringing young men acquainted with his indignant eloquence. To most men, Milton is only a poet whom they must read once in their lives. Young men should be taught to know him as the prophet of freedom. By fixing their attention on such authors as these we should extinguish their wish for inferior reading, and we should raise the standard of all their own thought and expression. Every college library should have all the good editions of our highest writers, and all the best critics and historians of their works and period. It is no matter if it have little more. Let inferior authors and curiosities of literature be sought for in great public libraries, where, as in some stately necropolis, their lifeless remains are embalmed.

But, glorious as English literature is, we are not entitled to extol it unless we have studied what elsewhere exists. Its appropriate rank can be decided only by a comparison with the literatures of the continent. The masterpieces, therefore, of foreign literature, both originals and translations, should be provided for every college. The intimate knowledge of Dante and the high national writers of Europe is the common ground on which all scholars stand, and he who has it not finds no admission among them. Yet there are American colleges of no mean rank, in whose libraries Dante is not found; and how many of the three hundred editions of Petrarch are to be found? How much do most men know of Cervantes and Lope de Vega? How many understood Tyndall's recent allusion to Giordano Bruno? The languages of the south of Europe are besides so easy, so important, and so diffused, that he is not an educated man who is not acquainted with them. To know English literature alone is to be a mere provincial in all the capitals of Europe; and to read and speak English alone, is to be neglected and undervalued wherever one goes. Every ambitious young man will learn these languages and literatures as a means of culture, and of access to opportunities. Considering the amount of foreign history, literature and science, which has not been and will not be translated into English, perhaps the fifth part of a college library should be in continental tongues.

If, now, we compare these requisitions with the existing state of college libraries among us, we shall find reason enough for regret and for exertion. It is the constant experience, we have said, of students asking for books of a higher sort, or (when required to write essays) seeking stimulants for thought, to find that the books they want are not in the college library. Such famine is intolerable. Let it no more be said of American students,

“Knowledge to their eyes her ample page,
Rich with she stores of time did ne’er unroll.”

Where a great library exists, college advantages seem to be multiplied, as by the turning of a kaleidoscope. The most recondite allusion may be searched out and understood. Opportunities for instruction are not limited by the abilities or acquisitions of the local professors; for the great masters of thought in other lands, or who have ever lived among men, may be the daily associates of the student. Example is the great stimulant for young men; let them have the best. A man is never safe from provincialism and narrowness of mind but by free intercourse with books. In libraries we may hear the debates which go on in the high parliament of the world, and the discussion of opinions pronounced in the lecture rooms which we frequent. The best way to become an independent thinker is to hear all sides and judge for one’s self. Very difficult is it not to follow too closely the guidance of a superior teacher, if we hear no other voice. It is true that universal reading may prove a drench to an undiscerning mind. But an instructor’s province is to suggest caution, while pointing out the advantage of induction from a wide circle of opinions.

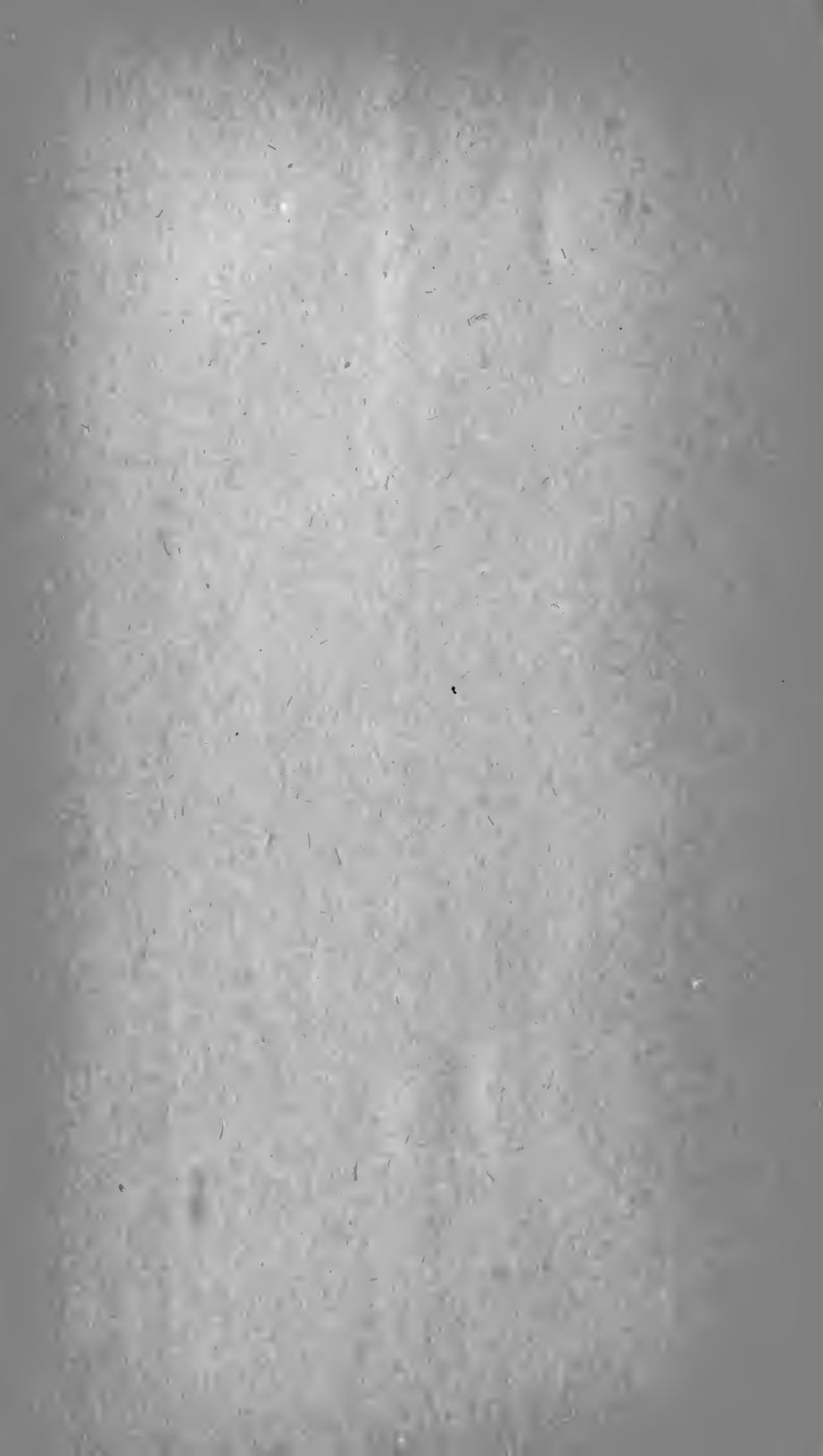
Many American colleges possess a scanty library fund, sufficient to purchase a few volumes, or a few hundred volumes every year. Such gifts deserve grateful remembrance, and they may suffice to procure the best of what is annually produced. In time, it is thought, they will secure a good library. Impossible! They are inadequate to fill the chasm which divides these libraries as they are, from repositories containing the best which former ages have produced. Nothing less than a great gift, made for this special end, can purchase that, and so ensure for all the future what the college needs for its highest

usefulness. Supposing it were true that present meagre funds would give in fifty years what is needed now, who could be willing to condemn twelve generations of students to low diet, and intellectual decrepitude resulting from it?

How bitter is the thought that youth comes but once, and that if advantages for instruction are not supplied at this period,

“All the voyage of their life
Is bound in shallows and in miseries.”

How painful the idea that the past poverty of America has entailed on almost sixty thousand of her educated sons, intellectual inferiority to what they might have been. Once settled in life, the ordinary student cannot buy for himself a great library, nor in nine cases out of ten will he be located near one. His college is the *alma mater*, from whose breast, while he remains in her arms, he has a right to ask the supply of his intellectual thirst. Her heart may well break if she sees her children famish through her poverty. We live in a time when millions are freely given to foster the interests of learning in our land. Let us not lavish them all in buildings. Europe spends her wealth in libraries, museums, and galleries. Foreign universities are not conspicuous for their edifices, but for their vast collections of books. What a sinking of heart does a librarian feel on comparing their stores to ours! Or even in exploring many a city book-store! Books are the life-blood of a literary institution. They may be of more value than all the rest. They speak to successive generations while time endures. He who founds a library lays the surest claims to the gratitude of millions. Happy the millionaire who shall endow ten college libraries with a hundred thousand dollars each. Literature shall remember him and perpetuate his name. When some greater Dante shall mark out the circles of the sky for the benefactors of mankind, he will marshal such men to their place, in the same quarter, but in far higher station, than those who erected fountains in fainting cities, or excavated reservoirs in torrid provinces of the East.



BOOK SALE EXTRAORDINARY.

Messrs. Bangs & Co. will sell by auction on Monday, March 19th, and following days, a most extensive and valuable library, gathered with care and judgment, during a number of years by a collector—of New York. The catalogue contains so much of interest that there is difficulty in a brief notice in giving a descriptive account of its strong points. It is rich in works relating to America, abundant in illustrated books and attractive in the departments of bibliography and general literature. Local histories and genealogies of families were gathered with avidity, and there are many books, in this class, of value, and many of infrequent occurrence at auctions. In beautiful typography the collector was a connoisseur—and those desirous of obtaining the handsomest specimens of American typography ever produced will have ample opportunity—and there are copies of books on drawing paper, of which, in some cases, not more than two copies were printed. Many specimens of English typography are offered, and one of the Triumvirate of inventors is represented in three books by Peter Schoeffer. Sargeant's life of Major André is a charmingly written book—it was a favorite with the owner, and it has been enriched expensively, and in good taste. The various drawings and illuminated title pages would alone cost a large sum of money. The Dibdins are a remarkably choice series, and contain everything of importance written by this readable author on Bibliography, whose books, in spite of assault on account of occasional inaccuracies, are the most elegant and most desirable works relating to books, for their deficiencies and shortcomings may be easily supplied from other works—works abounding in this catalogue—whilst in respect of elegance of production, graphic illustration, and agreeable and readable qualities, the books by the author of *Bibliomania* are unlikely to be equalled. Many of the books are finely bound by Messrs. J. M. Bradstreet & Son, though a number of the "Illustrated Books" remain in sheets, ready to be bound according to the taste of the purchaser. The catalogue is more extensive than that of Mr. Menzies, and contains many Bibliographical notes. It has been prepared with great rapidity, and though an occasional error may have escaped observation, the endeavor has been to make the description accurate, and perhaps in many cases rare and scarce books have not been treated with as full an attention as they deserved.

In regard to the books illustrated by the insertion of extra plates, we desire to say that the plates have been counted—but not recounted—and that in some instances there may be a plate more or a plate less.

The library was not confined exclusively to "collector's" books—which fact will account for the presence of many standard works, and the appearance of a few novels and works of interest to a general reader.

As a whole, the catalogue merits the attention of the purchaser of choice and rare books—the collectors of books relating to American history, bibliography, and elegant typography, biography and genealogy. The collection is worthy the especial attention of librarians, as many books are offered which are not likely to recur for sale very soon.

The great fire in Bond Street placed this collection in jeopardy—and it is a matter of much gratification that the books escaped. The windows of the room were broken, and the rear of the building damaged, but the books were not unpacked and they received no injury. The newspapers have given publication to a statement that the books of Mr. E. G. Asay were seriously injured; as Mr. Asay's books were all in his library at Chicago, it is not likely that a fire in Bond Street should have injured them. The collection under notice is the one which might have been injured—but it was not.

Appended is a list of some of the important items.

The Catalogue has been printed without an opportunity to read proof, and of course there are errors, typographical and otherwise. It is too late to correct more than a few, as below :

Lot 774 *for* Mexico, *read* Music.

788 *for* Bignon, *read* Bignon.

2752 *for* from, in the note, *read* forms.

2235 *for* true *read* fine.

3360 An important feature of the book is its superb binding in red morocco, with the inside linings elegantly tooled.

2483 The title to the volume is omitted. It is:

[JOHNSON, Samuel.] *Ethica*; or the First Principles of Moral Philosophy; and especially that Part which is called Ethics. The Chain of necessary Consequences from certain Facts. The Second Edition. *Philadelphia, printed by B. Franklin and D. Hall, at the New Printing Office near the Market, 1752.*

4848 Typographical Antiquities. In describing Lots 4848, 4849 and 4850, there is a duplication of one title, while the most important title is entirely omitted.

4848 Should read: [Colophon.] Reverendissimi cardinales tituli Sixti domini Johannis de Turrecremata. Expositio brevis et volis super toto psaltero. Mogutie impssa Anno dom. M.cccclxxiiij tercio idus Septembris y Petru Schayffer de geruschem schater est consumata. This rare book has the advantage of having the name of the Printer and the date. *Peter Schaefer, 1474.*

4849 and 4850. The catalogue reads 1565, whereas it should be 1465—it is one of those errors which is self evident to the intelligent collector.

LIST

COMPRISING THE RAREST AND MOST IMPORTANT BOOKS WHICH ARE
DESCRIBED IN THE CATALOGUE.

- | | | | |
|-----|---|-----------------------------|---------|
| 11 | Acosta. Historie of the East and West Indies. | <i>Lond.</i> | 1604. |
| 13 | Acugna, C. de. Discoveries in South America. | | 1698. |
| 23 | Adams, J. Works. 10 vols. Large paper. | | 1850. |
| 48 | Agrippa. De Incertitudine & Vanitate Scientiarum. | | 1536. |
| 58 | Alden, T. American Epitaphs. 5 vols., boards. | | 1814. |
| 63 | Alison, Sir A. History of Europe. 20 vols., post 8vo. | <i>Blackwood,</i> | 1847. |
| 68 | Allen. Narrative of Ethan Allen's Captivity. | <i>Boston,</i> | [1779.] |
| 75 | Allen. Capture of the Ship Olive Branch. 2 vols. 8vo. | | |
| 83 | Almon. The Remembrancer. 16 vols., 8vo. | | |
| 111 | Ames, Joseph. Typographical Antiquities. | | 1849. |
| 118 | André. The Cow Chace. 4to. | <i>Lond.</i> | 1781. |
| 119 | André. The Cow Chace. 12mo. | <i>N. Y.</i> | 1789. |
| 123 | André. Proceedings respecting André. | <i>Phila.</i> | 1780. |
| 150 | Apuleius. Metamorphosis. Translated by T. Taylor. | | 1822. |
| 152 | Archæologia Americana. 5 vols., 8vo. | | 1810. |
| 176 | Athenian Oracle. 4 vols., 8vo. | | 1728. |
| 185 | Backus, J. History of New England. Vols. I & II, 8vo. | | 1796. |
| 194 | Bailey, J. T. Historical Sketch of Brooklyn. | | 1840. |
| 212 | Bancroft, G. History of the United States. Large paper. | | 1861. |
| 217 | Bancroft. Poems: by G. Bancroft. 12mo. Uncut. | <i>Cambridge,</i> | 1823. |
| 229 | Barclay, R. Anarchy of the Ranters. | <i>Phila., B. Franklin,</i> | 1757. |
| 235 | Barlow, J. The Columbiad. 4to. Uncut. | <i>Phila.</i> | 1807. |
| 241 | Barnum, H. L. The Spy Unmasked. 8vo. | <i>N. Y.</i> | 1828. |
| 296 | Behn, Mrs. A. Poems. 12mo, calf. | <i>Lond.</i> | 1684. |
| 322 | Benson. Vindication of the Captors of André. 12mo. | | 1817. |
| 331 | Benzoni. Historia del Mondo Nuovo. 8vo. | | 1572. |
| 348 | [Beverley, R.] History of Virginia. | | 1705. |
| 360 | Bibliotheca Americana Vetustissima. Imp. 8vo. Uncut. | <i>N. Y.</i> | 1866. |
| 375 | Bishop, G. New England Judged. 8vo. | <i>Lond.</i> | 1703. |
| 378 | A List of Tories in the Revolutionary War. 8vo. | | 1802. |
| 380 | Blades, W. Life of William Caxton. 2 vols., 4to. | | 1861. |
| 394 | Bleecker, A. E. Posthumous Works. | <i>N. Y., Swords,</i> | 1793. |
| 433 | Bossu. Travels through Louisiana. 2 vols., 8vo. | <i>Lond.</i> | 1771. |
| 468 | Bradford Club. [A Complete Set.] 11 vols., royal 8vo. | <i>N. Y. [v. d.]</i> | |
| 472 | Col. Bradstreet's Expedition to Fort Frontenac. | | 1759. |
| 481 | Brant, Sebastian. Ship of Fools. 2 vols., Uncut. | <i>Lond.</i> | 1874. |
| 493 | Bridgewater Treatises. 12 vols. | | |
| 555 | Brunet, J. C. Manuel du Libraire. 6 vols. 8vo. | <i>Paris,</i> | 1860. |
| 560 | Bry, T. de. Collectiones Peregrinationum. | <i>Francofurti,</i> | 1590. |

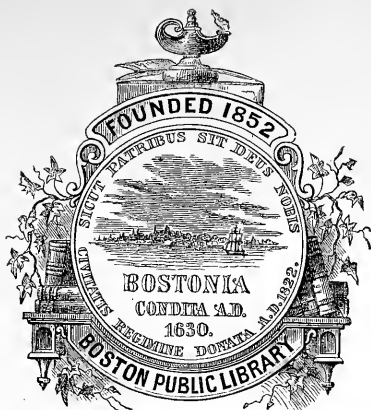
- 563 Bryant, W. C. The Embargo. 1808.
 610 Burk, J. The History of Virginia. 4 vols., 8vo. *N. Y.* 1862.
 646 Bushnell. Crumbs for Antiquarians. *Lond.* 1832.
 678 Byron. Finden's Illustrations. 3 vols., 4to. *Phila.* 1783.
 686 Cadwallader, J. A Reply to Joseph Reed. 8vo. 1797.
 698 Callender. History of the United States. *Boston,* 1739.
 703 Callender, J. Discourse on Rhode Island. 1702.
 710 Campanius, T. Kort Beskrifning Pennsylvania. 1771.
 808 Catesby, M. Natural History of Carolina. 2 vols., folio. 1851.
 811 Catlin Geo. N. American Indians. Colored plates. 2 vols. *Lond.* 1841.
 840 Chandler, P. W. American Criminal Trials. 1625.
 858 Chapman, G. Tragedie of Charles Duke of Byron. 1770.
 892 Church, B. Oration, March Fifth, 1733. 4to. 1704.
 896 [Churchill, John.] Voyages and Travels. 4 vols., folio. *Lond.* 1766.
 898 Cicero's Cato Major. *Phila., B. Franklin,*
 921 [Clarke, W.] Repertorium Bibliographicum. *Lond.* 1819.
 954 Memoirs of Mrs. Coghlan. 12mo. *N. Y.* 1795.
 975 A Collection of Facts relative to Alexander Hamilton. 8vo. *N. Y.* 1804.
 996 Collier. Bibliographical Account of the Rarest Books. *Lond.* 1865.
 1023 Cook, W. The Eucleia. 12mo. *Salem,* 1853-1862.
 1029 Cooper. Pages and Pictures. 4to. 40 plates. *N. Y.* 1861.
 1050 Corry, John. The Life of Washington. 12mo. *Lond.* 1800.
 1051 Cortes, H. Carta. Small 4to. 1865.
 1061 Cotton, J. Way of the Churches in New England. *Lond.* 1865.
 1071 Coxe, D. Descrip. Carolana. 8vo. *Lond.* 1722.
 1087 Criminal Recorder. 4 vols. *Lond.* 1804.
 1091 Cromwelliana. Portraits and plates inserted. Folio. 1810.
 1169 Dawson. War of the Revolution. *Morrisania.* 1867.
 1175 Dawson. Gazette Series. 4 vols., 8vo. *Yenkers.* 1866.
 1214 Delaplaine's Repository. 4to. *Phila.*
 1322 Doddridge, J. Indian Wars of the West. 1824.
 1357 Sir Francis Drake Revived. 4to. 1653.
 1375 Dramatists of the Restoration. 11 vols., 8vo. *Edinb.* 1870, &c.
 1387 Drayton, John. Letters. 8vo. 1794.
 1404 Duer. Reminiscences of an Old Yorker. 1867.
 1415 [Dunlap, William.] André; a Tragedy. 8vo. *Lond.* 1799.
 1454 Early History of Western Pennsylvania. 8vo. *Pittsburg,* 1846.
 1455 Eastburn. Narrative of Captivity among the Indians. *Phila.* 1758.
 1482 NAPOLEON'S GREAT WORK ON EGYPT. *Paris,* 1820.
 1493 Journal of Andrew Ellicott. 4to. *Phila.* 1803.
 1512 English Cyclopædia. 22 vols in 11. 1854-61.
 1533 Estaugh, J. Call to the Unfaithful. *Phila., B. Franklin,* 1744.
 1556 Equemelin, J. Bucaniers of America. *Lond.* 1684.
 1571 Narrative of Colonel Fanning. 4to. *Richmond, Va.,* 1861.
 1610 Filson, J. Present State of Kentucke. 8vo. *Wilmington,* 1784.
 1632 Folger, P. Looking Glass for the Times. 1677.
 1638 Force. Tracts and other Papers. 4 vols. 1836.
 1672 Franklin, B. Works. 10 vols., 8vo. *Boston,* 1856.
 1700 Freneau. Poems. *Phila.* 1786.
 1738 Gardiner. Catalogue of Ancient and Modern Books. 8vo. 1809-13.
 1748 [Gatford, Lionel.] Publick Good. 4to. *Lond.* 1657.
 1765 Gentleman's Magazine, 1731 to 1858. 181 vols., 8vo. 1731-1868

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 1829 Gordon, W. History of the United States. *Lond.* 1788.
 1832 Gosson, Steph. The Ephemerides of Phialo. 16mo. 1579.
 1840 Gould, J. History of Delaware County. *Roxbury.* 1856.
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 1948 Hallam, H. Works. 10 vols., 8vo.
 1962 Works of Alexander Hamilton. 7 vols., 8vo.
 1965 Hamilton. Observations on Certain Documents. 8vo. 1797.
 1975 Hamilton. Memoirs of Count Grammont. 2 vols., 8vo. 1811.
 1995 Hansard, T. C. Typographia. *Lond.* 1825.
 2006 Hariot, T. A briefe and true report of Virginia. 1871.
 2023 [Harris.] Bibliotheca Americana Vetustissima. 4to. 1856.
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 2088 Heckewelder. Mission among the Indians. 8vo. *Phila.* 1820.
 2109 Herbelot. Bibliotheque Orientale. 4 vols., 4to. 1777.
 2112 Herculaneum et Pompéi. 8 vols., 8vo. *Paris,*
 2119 Herrera. Historia General. 4 vols., folio. *Madrid,* 1730.
 2124 [Hewatt.] South Carolina and Georgia. 2 vols., 8vo.
 2155 Historical Magazine. 13 vols., 4to.
 2162 History of the War in America. 3 vols, 8vo. *Boston,* 1780.
 2180 Holbein, H. Portraits. Impl. 4to. *Lond.* 1828.
 2188 Holgate, J. B. American Genealogy. 4to.
 2218 Hone, W. Popular Works. 4 vols., 8vo.
 2226 Hope. Costume of the Ancients. 2 vols., 4to.
 2232 Horace, Translated. 8vo. *Phila.* 1786.
 2241 Horsmanden. The New York Negro Plot. *N. Y.* 1810.
 2276 Hubbard. Troubles with the Indians. 4to. *Boston,* 1677.
 2304 Humboldt. Personal Narrative. 7 vols., 8vo. *Lond.* 1814.
 2307 Hume, David. Philosophical Works. 4 vols., 8vo. *Edinb.* 1826.
 2313 Humpreys. Art of Writing. Impl. 8vo. *Lond.* 1855.
 2318 Hunt, C. H. Life of Edward Livingston. *N. Y.* 1864.
 2334 Hutchins, T. Topographical Description of Louisiana. 8vo. 1784.
 2335 Hutchinson. History of Massachusetts Bay. 4 vols., 8vo. *Lond.* 1708.
 2336 [Hutchinson.] Original Papers Relative to Mass. Bay. 8vo. 1769.
 2346 Iconographic Encyclopedia. 6 vols., 8vo., and 4to.
 2375 Ireland. Records of the New York Stage. 2 vols. 4to., drawing paper.
 2387 Irving. Life of George Washington. 5 vols., 4to.
 2395 Jackson, J. History of Wood Engraving. 1839.
 2417 James, W. D. Life of Gen. Marion. 8vo., Uncut. 1821.
 2420 Jameson, Mrs. Court of Charles II. 4to. *Lond.* 1833.
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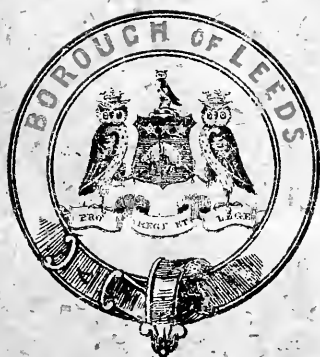
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- C 119 Voyages and Travels, Collection of (Mavor's) ... 28
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- C 176 Wales, North, Handbook to, (Murray's) ... 1
 C 824 Wales and The Welsh, Hill and Valley or, by C. Sinclair ... 1
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 D 342 Warming and Ventilation, by Charles Tomlinson .. 1
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 B 1294 Waterloo, Story of the Battle of, by Rev. G. R. Gleig ... 1
 B 2732 Waterloo, On the Battle of, by Genl. Sir J. S. Kennedy .. 1
 B 1288 Waterloo Campaign, Journal of; Late Genl. C. Mercer ... 2

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- B 1196 Waterton, Charles, His Home, Habits, &c.; R. D. Hobson 1
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 B 2775 Wellington, Selections from the Dispatches of ... 1
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 B 2740 Whately, R. (Archbishop) Life of, by E. Jane Whately ... 2
 A 50 Whately, R. (Archbishop) Selections from the Writings of 1

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F	940	Wit and Humour, by Leigh Hunt ...	1
F	970	Witching Time of Night, The ...	1
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D	1320	Worst Trade and Bradford, History of; Edward Collinson ...	1
B	262	Worthies, Book of, by Charlotte M. Yonge ...	1
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C 148	Yorkshire, Guide to (Murray's)	1
C 165	Yorkshire, Guide to (Murray's)	1
B 1211	Yorkshire Illustrations of English History, by J. G. Myall	1
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D 349	Zoology, Introduction to, by Robert Pattison	1

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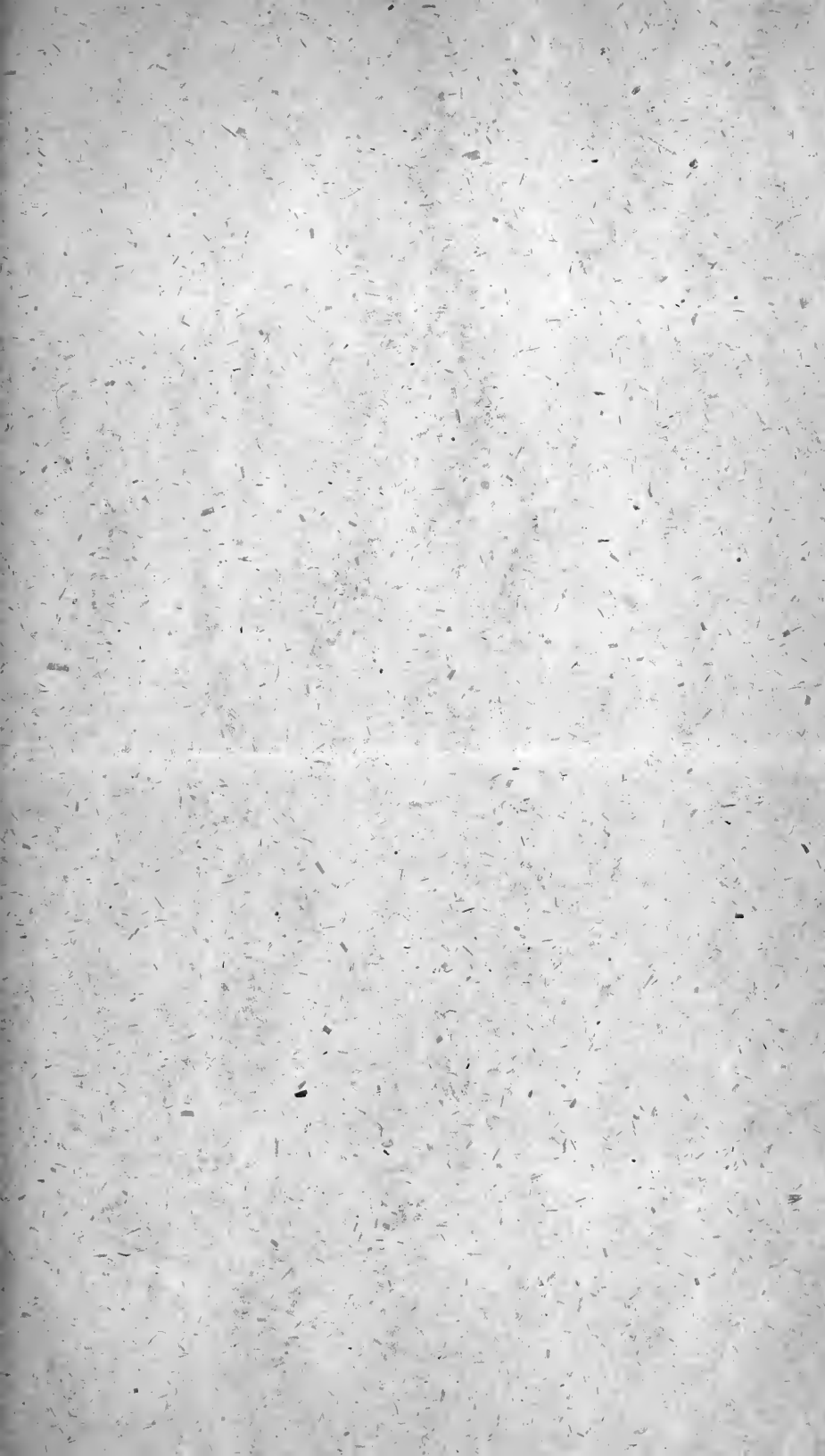
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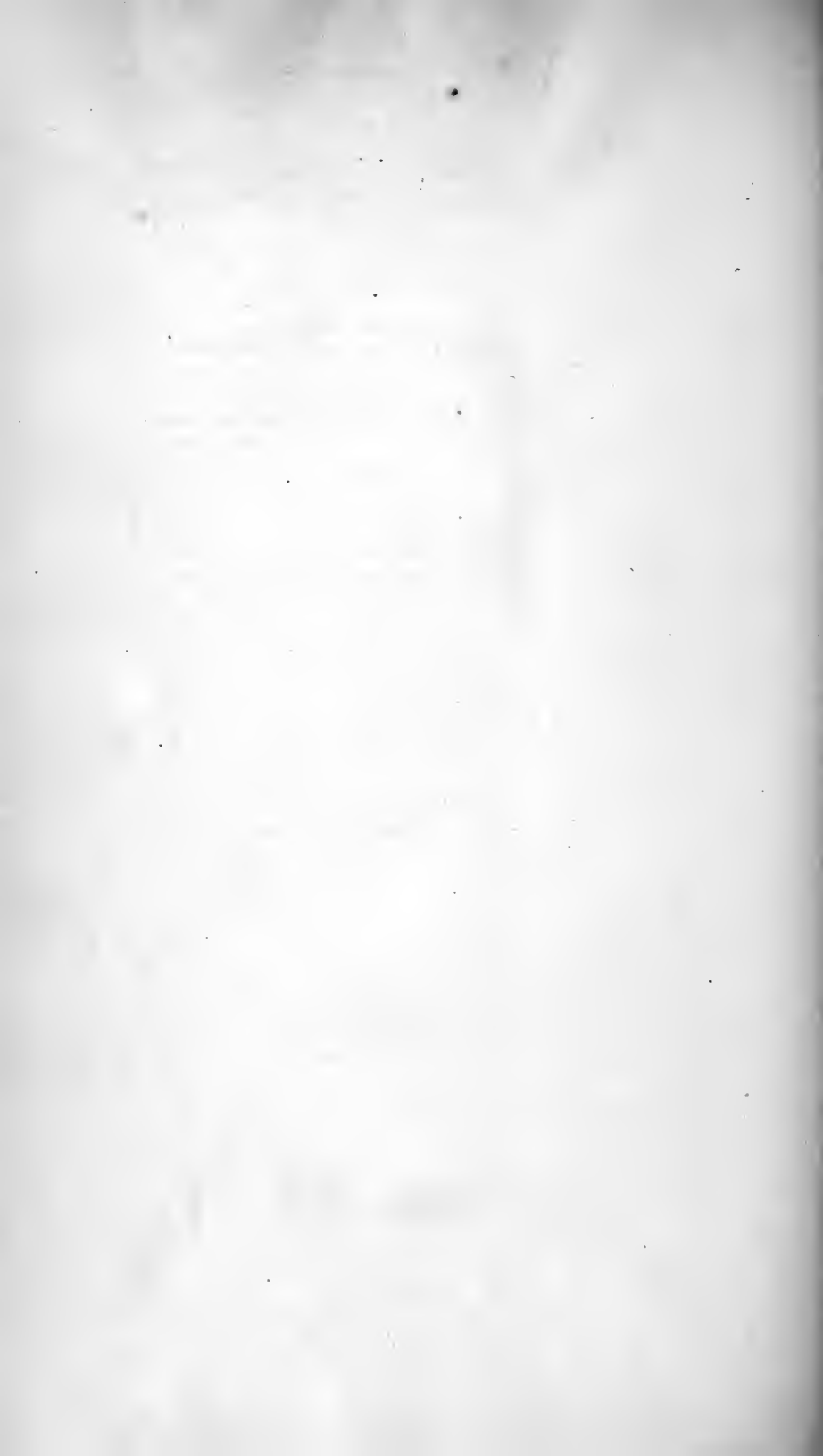
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Literary treasures
of the
Vatican Library.



Daily Advertiser
Boston, Feb. 20, 1880

NOTES FROM ABROAD.

THE LITERARY TREASURES OF THE VATICAN LIBRARY.

The Remarkable Catalogues of the Library and Their History; New Treasures by Leo XIII.; the Tiberina Museum No Longer in Existence; Discord Among Archæologists—Sardou's Latest Play in Paris—Various Foreign Notes.

[FROM OUR ROME CORRESPONDENT.]

ROME, Feb. 23, 1880.

While many are deploring the frightful disorder of Italian, especially Roman, public libraries; the carelessness and neglect of librarians; the disappearance of valuable *codici* and ancient books, which there is every reason to believe have been sold to English and German collectors,—the Pope, on the other hand, is displaying the greatest solicitude in regard to the celebrated and richly stocked Vatican library. Some time ago his Holiness appointed an especial commission to provide for the publishing of the truly remarkable catalogues of the Vatican library. No library in the world, probably, is so rich in *codici* as that of the Vatican, nor has any library such copious and accurate indexes and inventories. There is an ignorant, vulgar prejudice extant, which declares that the Vatican library is dark chaos; that it contains undiscovered and neglected treasures. This is entirely false. Great treasures it has, but they are all in order and properly catalogued. The Vatican catalogues have an interesting history, and when the present commission, over which presides the learned Cardinal Herzogenroeter, has given to the world its report, it will be seen how erroneous are the charges of neglect, and how perfect are its indexes. The catalogues began before the time of the celebrated papal historian, Platina. The inventories of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries are said to be admirable by modern scholars, such as Greith and De Reumont, who have used them. Besides those precious inventories which are for the use of the literary historian, there are voluminous and perfect inventories for daily use of the library, which have been carefully compiled from the seventeenth century up to our day. In 1620 and '21, or thereabouts, the brothers Rinaldi completed the seven first great tomes of the inventory of the Latin *codici*, with the enormous volume of alphabetical indexes. About the same time were completed the three great Greek tomes. In 1623 the famous Palatine library of Heidelberg came to Rome. Maximilian I. Elector of Bavaria, gave it to Gregory XV. It was composed of 1993 Latin *codici* and 431 Greek. The learned Leone Allacci brought it to Rome, and had it described

in two tomes, one Latin, one Greek. Alexander VII. (Chigi 1655-67) paid the debts of the city of Urbino and and received in exchange the rich collection of MSS. of the duchy; 1761 Latin *codici*, 165 Greek and 59 Hebrew; this Pope also bought from Cardinal Azzolini, the heir of Queen Christina of Sweden, her fine collection, 2902 Latin MSS. and 190 Greek; this forms a separate division in the Vatican library known as the *Codici Vaticani Regina*. These two collections have their fine inventories. Benedict XIV., the learned Lambertini (1740-58) bought the great Ottoboni library, 3385 Latin MSS., 472 Greek. Thus this vast library of the Popes has gone on increasing up to our day, and with every acquisition new inventories have been made. The learned Commendatore Giovanni Battista de Rossi has been working faithfully for many years upon the catalogues. This gentleman is the secretary of the commission for the publication of the Vatican catalogues; it is from him I have my information. De Rossi says he has found among the papers of the celebrated Francesco Bianchini, in the *Capitolare* of Verona, the famous index of the Ottoboni library compiled by Bianchini himself, and which has been supposed to be lost for so many years.

In the last century the Vatican library increased its Oriental treasures. The learned and noble family of Assemani came from Libano to Rome; the members were devoted to the service of the Vatican library two-thirds of a century; it was Benedict XIV. who brought them to Rome. These Assemani prepared three precious volumes of inventories of the Oriental manuscripts. Commendatore de Rossi will publish shortly an article giving a history of the editions of the Vatican catalogues; the original plan and the present one as it will be made according to the desire of Leo XIII. The 8, 9 and 10 volumes of Latin *codici* catalogues were completed the latter part of the eighteenth and during the first ten years of this century. During the pontificate of Pius IX. was begun the eleventh volume, and the twelfth volume was on the eve of completion in 1879; now it is finished, and the thirteenth volume begun; by this can be seen how rapidly the present works are going on. Last year Vincenzo Forcella published his first volume of the "Catalogue of Manuscripts in the "Vatican Library Relating to the History of "Rome." It is a beautiful book, an *edition de luxe*; the Fratelli Bocca are the publishers. In his preface, Forcella complains of the imperfect state of the Vatican catalogues and indexes; these imperfections will be corrected in the labor of the commission lately appointed by his Holiness. An extraordinary number of writers have been put on the work in order to push it rapidly to a conclusion.

ADDITIONS TO THE LIBRARY BY LEO XIII.

Leo XIII. is also adding to the Vatican library new treasures. He has lately purchased two collections of valuable *codici* and books. One has a fine set of unpublished letters and documents, which contain most important information about the history of Papal Rome during the last three centuries. The other has some precious documents on jurisprudence. Among these are twelve very ancient *codici*, in which are the Institutes of Justinian with the "*Digesti vetus novum*." These

are well known as the first principles of Roman law, which were compiled by the chancellor of Justinian, Tribonian, by order of his imperial master, first published in A.D. 529. Tribonian took these institutes from those of Gaius, who was one of the most learned juriconsults of the time of Hadrian. These *codici*, lately bought by his Holiness, are in parchment, and enriched with the glossaries of Bologna, especially those of the celebrated Irnerio or Irnerius, the famous chief of the mediæval school of glossarists, called from its master the Irnerian school. To Irnerius and his scholars is owing the revival of Roman law which has played so grand a part in our days. Irnerius was one of the counsellors of the celebrated Countess Matilda of Tuscany, also of Henry V. and Lothaire II. The "*Digestum novum*" in this new collection of Leo XIII. dates certainly from the beginning of the twelfth century, and there are some indications which make it probable that it is of the eleventh century. Two volumes contain two exemplars of the Decretals of Gregory IX. They are also in parchment and date back anterior to Boniface VIII., with a glossary also of the school of Bologna. One of the exemplars has the letter sent by Gregory IX. to the University of Paris. Besides these, there is a volume of Rotali decisions belonging to the fourteenth century, very rare; because the collection in the Rotali archives only begins with the fifteenth century. The *Rota* in mediæval days was the central parliament of Christianity, a mixed tribunal of the highest importance. Added to this fine collection of works on jurisprudence, there is a magnificent one of documents of the sixteenth century, many of which are unpublished; in these I am told are marvellous revelations about the history of that epoch, when there were so many dark and serious events, so many complicated political changes. It was the great period of such pontificates as Julius II., Leo X., Clement VII., Paul III., Paul IV., St. Pius V.; the masterful Sixtus V. and Clement VIII., the closing of the classic age of the Papacy and the opening of the modern age. These sixteenth-century documents lately acquired by Leo XIII. are in three huge volumes, and will be used shortly for the benefit of Italian history. The works on jurisprudence have been placed by his Holiness at the disposal of the *Storia giuridica* Academy of Rome.

THE LEARNED FABIANI.

Monsignor Ciccolini, the chief officer of the Academy of Arcadia, has been appointed librarian of the Vatican library, in place of Monsignor Martinucci. The Pope, it is said, thought of making the learned Oriental scholar Fabiani librarian, but on reflection resolved not to remove him from the Egyptian Museum; moreover, Fabiani is not in good health; he had an attack of something like apoplexy a fortnight or so ago; while working in the Egyptian Museum he fell over and was picked up insensible; the attack passed off and in a few days he was as well as usual, but there are serious apprehensions felt by his friends about his health. Fabiani is a canonico of St. Maria Maggiore; very learned in everything relating to doctrine and religious science. His passion is for Oriental studies and Biblical lore. He is a good

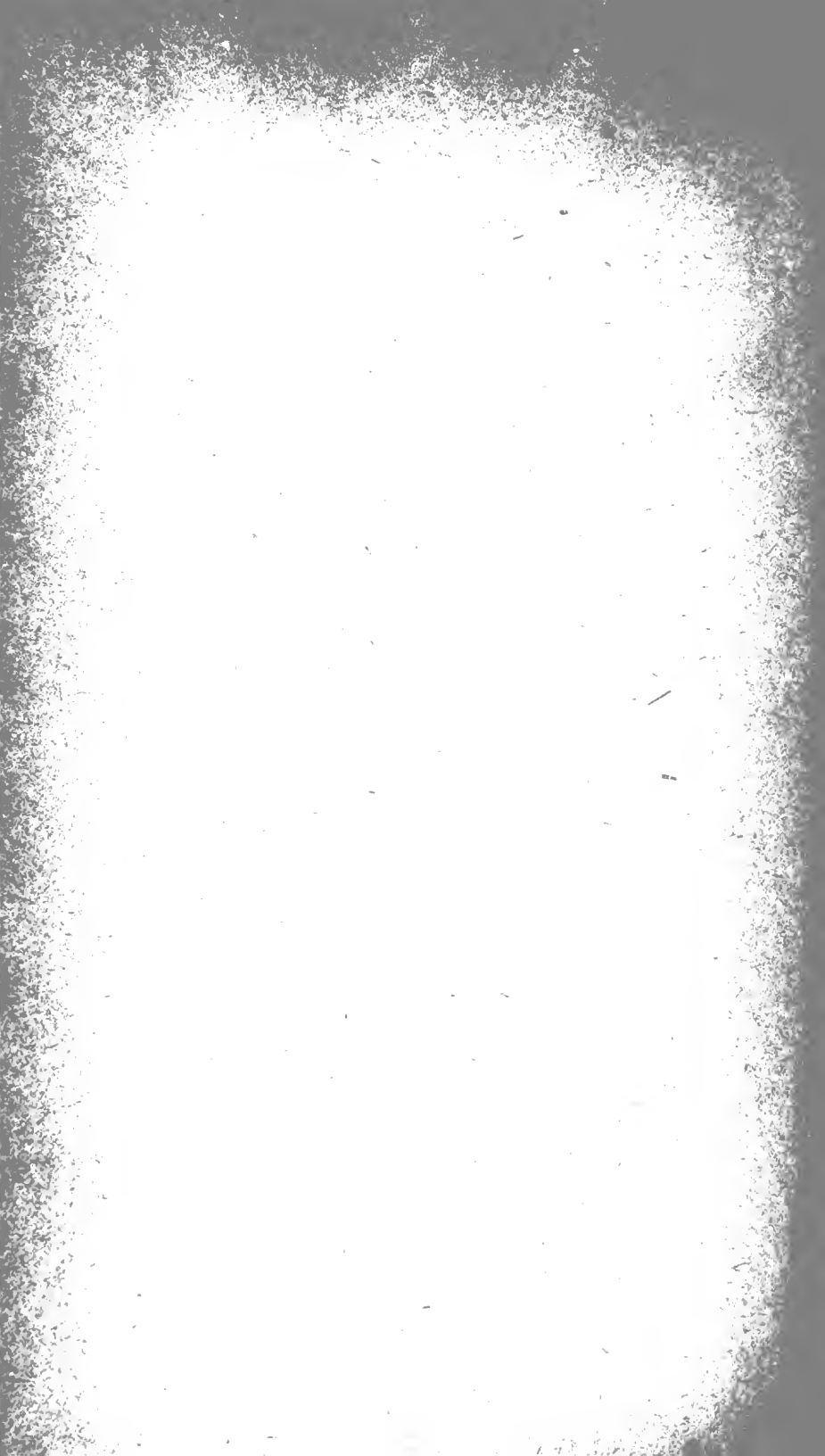
pulpit orator, and has often been one of the preachers in Lent at St. Maria Maggiore, the Vatican and Saint Andrea della Fratte. Don Enrico Fabiani used to be a proverb in Rome for his slovenliness. He is a man of fifty-five years of age; he passes our windows every day; he is tall, not stout nor thin; has a round, rather vulgar, but most intelligent face, very yellow skin, small gray eyes which are covered with glasses, a large head and broad forehead. Fabiani is liberal in his views, but very utopian; his desire is to see Italy united under the Pope. In his younger days, some thirty years ago, he was one of the masters at the Propaganda, with Monsignor Ceccolini and Ximenes, a Spanish priest, who was stabbed and killed in the Piazza del Gesu twenty-five years ago. They all published a satirical journal, and it is believed that Ximenes was assassinated by some one ridiculed in that paper, and who killed Ximenes for private vengeance. In those days Monsignor Ceccolini and Fabiani were very liberal in politics. When Pius IX. returned from Gaëta, after the troubles of 1848, his Holiness established a committee of censure, formed of three cardinals. This committee dismissed Fabiani and Ceccolini from their positions in the Propaganda and retired them on a small pension.

THE ANCIENT RELICS AND RUINS OF ROME.

The Tiberina Museum, which I described in a letter to the Advertiser this autumn, exists no longer. The frescoes have been taken down from the damp walls of the Orto Botanico plant-house, where they should never have been placed; the new minister of public instruction, De Sanctis, has ordered them to be boxed and packed away until a suitable place can be found for them. It was a lucky chance that I saw them when I did; now they may be stored away and disappear, as so many beautiful things have been in any complete harvest of information from excavations. The apple of discord is thrown in among archaeologists; confusion and dispute disturb everything. The excavations are conducted like the repairs of old buildings, with the strangest disregard of valuable objects. The walls of Romulus were uncovered on the Palatine about twelve years ago, when I first came to Rome; they have been left exposed to rain and air, and are crumbling away into turfy mould. Before long they will cease to exist, and new Mommsens will tell those who come after us that there never were any such walls. The agger of Servius Tullius also has been shamefully destroyed in several places. Four years ago repairs began in the apse of St. John of Lateran. The apse has been enlarged in order to make a winter choir for the canons. The valuable mosaic on the old apse it is now decided cannot be removed entire, but must be taken to pieces and reformed on the new apse! Bushris, the former architect of St. John of Lateran, declares that if it had been removed at the time he recommended, and according to his views, the mosaic could have been removed entire as a stone; but he was removed from office, others put in his place, and hence the present sad state of affairs. There is another beautiful monument destroyed, for, of course, the repaired mosaic will never be the same as the grand old one of the Franciscan monk of the thirteenth century, Fra Jacopo da Turrita.

ANNE HAMPTON BREWSTER.







PAMPHLETS.
British Museum.

Ed. Rev. May, 1823.

ART. V. 1. *Annual Reports of the Trustees of the British Museum.* 1822.

2. *Synopsis of the Contents of the British Museum.* 1820.

3. *Description of the Marbles, &c. deposited in the British Museum.* 1821.

OUR object in placing these publications at the head of this article, is not to enter into any examination of their contents; but to call the attention of the public to some circumstances connected with the present state of our great NATIONAL MUSEUM, which appear to demand an early consideration.

This noble Institution may be said to have originated in the bequest of Sir Hans Sloane, who, dying in 1752,* left his immense collections of every kind to the nation, on the condition of paying 20,000*l.* in legacies to different individuals; a sum considerably less than the intrinsic value of the medals, coins, gems, and precious metals of his Museum. This bequest included a library of 50,000 volumes, among which were 3566 volumes of MSS. in different languages; an herbarium of 334 volumes; other objects of natural history, to the number of six-and-thirty or forty thousand, the descriptive catalogue of which filled thirty-eight volumes in folio, and eight in quarto;† and the house at Chiswick, in which the Museum was deposited.

The Harleian Collection of MSS., amounting to 7,600 vo-

* According to Biograph. Brit. ; but his friend George Edwards says 1753.

† The following synopsis of Sloane's Collections is given by Edwards from the notes of the owner, a short time before his death.

Library, including books	Corals, sponges, &c.	1,421
of prints and illustrat-	Testacea or shells, &c.	5,843
ed works, MSS. &c.	Echini, echinites, &c.	659
about - - - 50,000 vols.	Asteriæ trochi, entro-	
Medals and coins - - 23,000	chi, &c. - - -	241
Cameos and intaglios,	Crustacea - - -	363
about - - - 700	Stellæ marinæ, &c. -	173
Seals, &c. - - - 268	Fishes and their parts	1,555
Vessels of agate, jasper, &c.	Birds and their parts,	
Antiquities - - - 1,125	nests, eggs, &c. -	1,172
Precious stones, &c. - 2,256	Quadrupeds, &c. -	1,386
Other minerals - - - 7,686	Vipers, serpents, &c. -	521
	Insects,	

lumes, chiefly relating to the history of England, and including, among many other curious documents, 40,000 ancient charters and rolls, being about the same time offered for sale, Parliament voted a sum of 40,000*l.* to be raised by lottery, and vested in Trustees, for the establishment of a National Museum. Of this money, 20,000*l.* were paid to the legatees of Sir Hans Sloane; 10,000*l.* were given for the Harleian MSS., and 10,000*l.* for Montague-house, as a receptacle for the whole. Sloane's Museum was removed thither with the consent of his trustees. In 1757, George II. presented to the museum the whole of the Royal Library collected by our kings, from the time of Henry VII. to that of William III.; which included the libraries of Archbishop Cranmer, of Henry Fitzallan, Earl of Arundel, and of the celebrated scholar Isaac Causabon: And, in 1759, the British Museum was opened to the public.

The Collection embraces three grand departments—a library of printed works and MSS.—a collection of antiquities of every description—and collections in every branch of natural history.

1. The value of the library has been greatly enhanced by magnificent donations, and by immense Parliamentary purchases. Among the great benefactors to this department, we ought to mention, in the first place, his late Majesty George III., who presented to it upwards of 50,000 scarce tracts; and its value was greatly augmented by the bequests of Thomas Tyrwhit, Esq.—of Sir Richard Musgrave—of the Reverend Mr. Cracherode—and, above all, by that of Major Arthur Edwards, who left to it his noble library, and 7000*l.* as a fund for the purchase of books. Parliament has, at different times, granted specific sums, for the purchase of various highly valuable collections of books; and, among others, of the Cottonian Library of 861 MS. volumes, of which, however, 54 had been much damaged by a fire in 1731, including Madox's Collections 'on the Exchequer,' in 94 volumes, besides many precious documents connected with our domestic and foreign history about the time of Elizabeth and James. Dr Birch bequeathed 337 volumes of MSS.; and the libra-

Insects, &c. - - -	5,439	Miscellaneous, things natural, &c. - -	2,098
Vegetables, including seeds, roots, &c. -	12,506	Mathematical instruments - -	55
Hortus siccus, or volumes of dried plants -	334	Pictures and framed drawings - - -	471
Humana calculi, and anatomical preparations -	756		

See Memoirs of the Life of George Edwards, London, 1776.

ry was, about the same time, augmented by the acquisition of Halhed's Oriental MSS., in 93 volumes; of which 14 are in Sanscrit, and the rest chiefly in Persian and Arabic. This department of literature received some valuable additions by Colonel Hamilton's acquisitions in Egypt, and several MSS. presented by later travellers. One of the most important additions to the MSS., was the purchase of the Landsdowne Collection, consisting of 1352 volumes; of which, 114 are Lord Burleigh's State Papers, 46 Sir Julius Cæsar's Collections respecting the reigns of Elizabeth and James I., and 108 the Historical Collections of Bishop Kennet. In 1818, Parliament granted 13,500*l.* for the purchase of Dr Burney's library of scarce books and MSS.; which was a noble addition to the Museum. Many years ago, Sir Joseph Banks was the donor of many curious Icelandic MSS.; and this donation was *crowned*, in 1820, by his bequest of his whole prodigious library, unrivalled in some departments of knowledge, especially in what relates to every branch of natural history. By far the greatest and most important accession it has lately received, however, is that which it owes to the truly royal munificence of the present king; viz. the library of 150,000 volumes, and a most valuable series of maps and charts, collected by his father.

These various acquisitions, minor donations, the numerous purchases by the Trustees—and the right of obtaining copies of all British publications entered at Stationers Hall, have contributed to render the library of the British Museum a vast and noble depositary of every species of literature.

II. The original antiquities of Sloane's collection, with the exception of the coins and medals, do not appear to have been of high value; and until the present century, the additions in this department of the Museum were not numerous. The antiquities which the conquest of Egypt threw into our hands, and the purchase of Mr Townley's collection of marbles in 1805 for 20,000*l.*, may be considered as the first grand additions to this department. This was followed by the purchase of Sir William Hamilton's vases, &c. at an expense of 8,400*l.* It would be injustice here to omit the princely gift of the Barberini vase in 1810, by the late Duke of Portland, who had bought it from Sir William Hamilton for 1000*l.* The riches of the Museum were greatly augmented by the acquisition of the matchless collection of Lord Elgin, for which Parliament voted 35,000*l.* in the year 1816. Our national collection has since been farther enriched by the purchase of the Phigalian frieze, a well preserved series of very spirited high-reliefs, of the pure age of Grecian sculpture. When contemplating these last mentioned

treasures, we could not conceal our mortification at the unfortunate error by which our country was deprived of the possession of the very interesting statues of the Tympana of the Temple of Egina. These marbles seem to have been buried by an earthquake, to which they may be said to owe their fortunate preservation. They were discovered in 1811 by two of our countrymen, Messrs Cockrell and Foster, and two German travellers, who agreed to join in excavating the dilapidated temple of Jupiter Panhellenius. In the course of their excavations, they discovered ten nearly entire statues of the western, and five of the eastern pediment; besides such fragments of the remainder of the two groups, as showed completely the whole design of the first, and much of the latter of these decorations; and also the four small figures which stood on the *acroteria*. These fruits of an arduous and expensive search, were first embarked for Zante, and then, for security, sent to Malta. Their sale was afterwards advertised for a long time in all the capitals of Europe, as to take place at Zante, on a certain day. One of the gentlemen on the establishment of the British Museum was despatched to secure the prize for our country; but by some strange fatality, Mr Taylor Combe stopped at Malta instead of proceeding to Zante; and this most curious collection of marbles, highly interesting, as forming a link between the stiff style of Egyptian, and the refined period of Grecian art, remarkable for the singularity of some parts, and the excellence of most of the details, unique as an instance of an antique group of large size, discovered on the very spot it was originally designed to decorate, was knocked down at 8000*l*. (the upset price) to the agent of the King of Bavaria, the only bidder who appeared at the sale!

It is to be hoped that the Egyptian antiquities sent home by M. Salt and Belzoni, will not be permitted to leave this country, where they have acquired a fresh interest, from the curious discoveries of Dr Young, who appears to hold the key to the sacred characters of Egypt in his hands.

III. The collections of Natural History have been greatly augmented in the Mineral department, by many donations, and several extensive purchases. The specimens of Sloane's cabinet were united with those bequeathed by Mr Cracherode, and with the collection purchased in 1798 from Mr Hatchet. In 1810, the noble mineral cabinet of the honourable Mr Greville, which was first accurately examined, and valued by competent judges at 13,727*l*., was purchased by Parliament for that sum. Besides several minor acquisitions, this department was farther augmented by the purchase of the collections of

Baron Mole and of Baron Beroldingen ; and by Lord Grenville's present of Peruvian minerals.

On the management and classification of the Library, the Antiquities, and Minerals, we do not mean at present to enter ; because we are satisfied that these are as well conducted as the accommodation in Montague House will permit ; and we have had personal experience of the urbanity and attention of the gentlemen to whose care they are committed, in rendering them of utility to the student, and an amusement to the public. We may here also express our approbation of the greater liberality in the mode of admission to the National Museum, which was adopted in the year 1811 or 1812. In this respect, Englishmen now have less occasion to blush for the contrast between the systems pursued in our own country and in France, where the freedom of admission formed one of the greatest pleasures we received on visiting the superb depositories of science and of art in Paris. The effect of the new regulations adopted by the Trustees of the British Museum has not been lost on the public. In the year ending 25th March 1812, the number of admissions to the British Museum did not exceed 27,499 ; while in the year ending March 25, 1822, the persons admitted amounted to 91,151,—a result equally proving the foresight of the Trustees, and the increasing taste of the people.

It is to the state of the Zoological department of the Museum that we at present mean chiefly to direct the attention of our readers.

The Zoological additions have not kept pace with the other departments of the British Museum. After the acquisition of Sloane's cabinet, we do not recollect any considerable purchases, with the exception of a collection of birds, some years ago, for which about 500*l.* were given, and what was bought at the sale of Bullock's Museum, when about 400*l.* were laid out in Zoological specimens. The number of specimens, however, ought by this time to be immense. Very valuable presents have been given by private individuals ; and Sir Joseph Banks presented the whole of his superb collection of animals, formed during his voyage round the world. From these sources, and the original cabinet of Sloane, a most extensive collection of Zoological specimens ought to have been accumulated. This part of Sloane's collection consisted of 19,275 articles connected with animal life. Of these there were 1886 quadrupeds, 1172 birds and their parts, 1555 fishes and their parts, 5439 insects, and 9221 specimens of the lower animals, including shells, serpents, &c. When to these we add all that has been presented or purchased in the course of more

than half a century, how comes it that a visitor to the Museum can see so little of all these Zoological treasures? Foreigners inquire with eagerness where this department of the British Museum is to be viewed; and, in spite of politeness, are tempted to laugh outright when they are referred to the half dozen quadrupeds that are exhibited on the staircase, and the few specimens of birds, which add little either to the interest or ornament of one of the saloons of Montague House.

The state of decay and ruin in which the Zoological collections of the Museum in general exhibit, and the very little which can be learnt in a visit to it, from the small number exposed to public view, the want of labels or references to most even of these, and the strange names attached to the most familiar animals in some of the cases, where a second *Adam* appears to have been at work, have long excited our surprise and our inquiries; and we are concerned to state, that the result of our investigation reflects no credit on those whose duty it was to have seen that due attention was paid to the preservation of this species of national property. 1st, The Testacea of Sloane, exceeding 5800 in number, augmented by innumerable donations, and the purchase of Colonel Montague's collection of British shells, ought to have formed a noble source of study to the conchologist; but the shells of the British Museum, with the exception of a portion of what Dr Leach was engaged in arranging at the time of his lamented illness, are of as little use for the purposes of general study, as if they were in China. The collection of the genus *Lepas* (cirrhipedes) to which Dr Leach paid great attention, is indeed fine, and is beautifully arranged; but very few of the other shells are labelled; and many private cabinets in London greatly surpass the national collection of Testacea. The British shells of Colonel Montague's collection, are in a separate room, and are complete and well arranged; but the student cannot have access to any part of it, without formal application to trustees and principal keepers; and several days must elapse between the request and the obtaining of the favour.* This sort of property was certainly intended for the public benefit when it was purchased with public money, and not solely for the studies of the keepers of the Museum. If any shells are buried in the vaults of Montague-House, or locked up in private rooms, they are lost to the public; and there is

* This certainly was the state of things less than a year ago; and probably it still remains unchanged.

reason to fear, that a vast number of what were originally deposited in the Museum, are no longer to be found in its repositories, owing to the little attention which has been bestowed on the preservation of objects, which, in themselves, are certainly among the least destructible specimens of natural history. It has happened to one of our friends, who was admitted into the subterranean repositories of Montague House, to observe no less than five specimens of that rare shell *Murex Carinohus*, which is so well figured in the title page of Pennant's fourth volume of *British Zoology*, lying on the floor, among a heap of other shells which had been thrown aside as rubbish! And yet this shell is no where visible among those that are open to the public.

We may here take the opportunity of stating, that the zoological specimens which have been arranged and named, are of comparatively little utility to the student who visits the Museum for information; for the attached names are generally such as are not to be found in any published system; and the caprice of the nomenclator seems not to have allowed almost any specimen to retain the appellation imposed by his predecessors. The rage for new nomenclature is the epidemic malady of our Continental neighbours. With all due respect for the French naturalists, we cannot admit the propriety or utility of their perpetual endeavours to substitute a nomenclature of their own, for that which has been long received by civilized nations. Naturalists of that country, and their imitators among ourselves, too often dream that they are enlarging the boundaries of science, and establishing for themselves the character of discoverers, when they have invented new names for familiar objects; when, in truth, they are only encumbering science with a needless load of words, calculated to impede the progress of the student of nature. We are far from being hostile to *all deviations* from a received nomenclature or arrangement. Where there is an evident impropriety in descriptive language, or where an arrangement is founded on erroneous principles, or may lead to false conclusions, we always wish to meet the correcting hand of the scientific reformer; but we object to all unnecessary deviations from established nomenclature; especially to all changes which have no ostensible motive, but the silly vanity of proposing new names, or the pompous egotism of dabblers in classification. The adoption of such innovation in a private collection, would be ascribed to bad taste; in a new book they would draw down the wholesome castigation of the reviewer; in a public museum they merit the reprobation of every true friend to science.

If called on to state what nomenclature or classification we should prefer in a national collection of organized nature; we have little hesitation in saying, that we should be inclined to recommend a system, which has for its basis the outline of the illustrious Swede, corrected, modified, and subdivided, according to modern discoveries; because its language is interwoven with the national science of civilized nations, for more than half a century of most important discoveries in this branch of knowledge, and is the most universally received of any which has ever been given to the world. We are, however, far from inculcating a servile adherence to the divisions of the Swedish naturalist; a lingering '*on the steps of the temple where Linnæus had left us,*' as it has been well expressed by one writer. The progress of science demands many alterations of his classification, and some in his nomenclature; but we would warn the young naturalist against indulging in a restless love of change, indiscriminately involving equally the merits and defects of a system which, for convenience, and accurate discrimination of species, has never been excelled, and is superior to all in the philosophic principles of its nomenclature. It should not be forgotten, that Linnæus never considered his system as complete; he gave it as convenient, though imperfect; and we have always considered as one of its excellences, the ease with which it admitted of modifications and subdivisions, when found advantageous, beyond that of any system with which we are acquainted.—But to return to our more immediate subject.

2d, With respect to the Corals, Sponges, and other lower animals of the British Museum, we are not prepared to elucidate the state in which they are. We know, that little in this department is visible to the public; and they may be mouldering or blackening in the crypts of Montague-house, the tomb or charnel-house of unknown treasures.

3d, The Insects of Sloane's Collection alone amounted to upwards of 4500 specimens. Of these, not *one* remains entire; but the scattered ruins may be found, with the piled up cabinets, in a corner of one of the subterranean passages. When Dr Leach was appointed zoologist to the Museum, he presented to the nation his valuable collection of Insects; and Mr Browne transmitted all those brought home in Captain Flinders's voyage; yet, of these, which we hope have not shared the fate of the other collection, not one is exposed to public view.

4th, The collection of Animals, or parts of Animals, preserved in spirits, which have been deposited in the Museum, was most extensive; and the Fishes, Snakes, and Reptiles, in

particular, were once most numerous and curious. From these, or from the small Quadrupeds preserved in bottles, the public is not permitted to derive any gratification or instruction; and we know, that many of these preparations have been irreparably injured, from the want of attention to supplying the spirit wasted by evaporation. The principal part of these, if still in existence, are buried in the crypts of the Institution, six or seven of which are absolutely crammed with cabinets, piles of shells, and boxes with 'contents unknown,' articles which have not seen the light since they first entered Montague-house, remains of quadrupeds, and bottles* of all sizes, some still containing preserved animals, but many presenting disfigured and noisome remnants of what were once rare and interesting objects of natural history.—All this, too, notwithstanding the sums annually allowed '*for the preservation of the Zoological Collections.*'

Besides the purchases which have been made from time to time in this department, innumerable donations have been made to the Museum, by individuals who felt an honest pride in the idea of contributing to the cause of Science, while they were adding to the richness of the National collection. We have reason to know the bitter disappointment which has awaited the donors of extensive collections, when, on a subsequent visit to the British Museum, they were unable to perceive, or even to learn from the keepers, where their donations had been deposited, or if they were then in existence.

5th, The ornithological department of Sloane's Museum contained 1172 articles. This was augmented some years ago by the purchase of an extensive collection of birds, and by a prodigious number of presents, it is said, both from foreigners and natives, amongst which the magnificent collection of birds, formed by Sir Joseph Banks, during his voyages, stood pre-eminent, for the number of beautiful and unique specimens. Of these various collections, we are informed, by those who have taken much pains to investigate the subject, that there are now but 322 specimens left! and that these, from being crowded together on shelves, in old-fashioned, lofty, unsightly presses, which cannot sufficiently guard them from dust and insects, present a most slovenly spectacle; and, in a few years, for want of care, will probably 'leave not a wreck behind.'

The fate of Sir J. Banks's Collection, appears almost incredible, yet not the less true. Will it easily be believed, that this

* We are concerned to state, that the number of bottles now in the vaults seem to us *surprisingly small*, considering the multitude of such preparations once belonging to the Museum.

noble collection has disappeared from the Museum! The packages which contained it filled, we are told, a large waggon, when conveyed from the house of the generous donor, to the British Museum. They were there safely deposited in the *mysterious vaults*, and seem, in a great measure, to have been forgotten, as they were wholly lost to the public, until a singular accident called them from their hiding-place.

When the College of Surgeons commenced furnishing their Museum, they obtained an order from the Trustees of the British Museum, for such objects of natural history as could be spared from the latter Collection. Unfortunately, Dr Shaw stumbled on those cases, and they were sent to the Museum of the College. It was afterwards deemed prudent by that Body to confine their collections to subjects of human and comparative anatomy; and a well known collector, having in his possession many skeletons, and other articles suited to the purposes of the College, agreed to exchange them for specimens more adapted to his already magnificent collection; and we are told, that the cases containing Sir J. Banks's Collection, which had remained, it seems, *unopened* at Surgeon's Hall, were, *en masse*, consigned to him, in exchange for his anatomical preparations. He found these cases, admirably secured and pitched over, to contain the greatest rarities, in the most perfect preservation; and thus a private individual became fairly possessed of the largest collection of uncommon and splendid birds which was ever at one time imported into Britain. The mistake was discovered when too late; and the Trustees of the British museum, anxious to repair, as much as possible, the unlucky accident, authorized Dr Leach to purchase up those very articles, at the subsequent dispersion of the collection above alluded to. The concourse of distinguished foreign naturalists whom the fame of the intended sale attracted to England, made some of the birds fetch most exorbitant prices; and near 400*l.* were expended by Dr Leach, in restoring to the National Museum perhaps but a small part of what had been presented to it, by one of the most munificent patrons of natural history which this country ever produced! We do not state this transaction as one consistent with our individual knowledge: but it has come to us in a way that leaves little doubt of the fact; and every inquiry we have made has tended to confirm our conviction.

These observations on the neglected state of the Ornithological department of the Museum, do not apply to the British birds, which make a part of the collections lately purchased from the heirs of Colonel Montague for 1000*l.* These are fitted up with taste, and even elegance, in a separate room, and

are provided with labels; but here, again, we recognise the rage for new names in its wildest form. Our old acquaintance the yellow wagtail, that has often delighted our boyish eyes, we were surprised to find metamorphosed into the *yellow bradyte*—an appellation not to be found in any published system of ornithology with which we are acquainted.

The purchases made two or three years ago by Dr Leach, for the Museum, included some extremely rare and splendid trochili, or humming birds, several of which cost three and four guineas a piece; but so little care is taken of these beautiful wonders of the feathered creation, since Dr Leach's resignation, that, on a recent visit to the British Museum, they were observed to be swarming with insects; and a few months more will probably consign them to the grave of Sloane's collections—the vaults of Montague-House. Indeed, we may remark, that except *moths*, *ptini*, and *dermestes*, busily employed amid the splendours of exotic plumage, or roaming through the fur of animals, we do not know that a single insect is visible to the public, of all that have been deposited in the British Museum. The foreign birds exhibited in the Museum now, only amount to 322—and of these not one has its name attached to it, nor is there a single specimen named in the catalogue. If any birds were collected in our late Polar expeditions, not one has yet appeared in the Museum.

6th, The destruction among the quadrupeds is not less complete. Sloane's Museum contained 1886 specimens of *mammalia*; and a vast number of articles of this description have, at different times, been presented to the National Collection. But except what may be preserved in bottles, or falling to pieces in the vaults, all Sloane's quadrupeds have been annihilated. It is well known, that such articles require considerable attention to exclude insects and dust, and that, without this care, they are very perishable. But it is as well known, that with due attention to proper *stoving*, when insects first appear, and to impregnating the skins and fur with preparations, of which arsenic, corrosive sublimate and camphor, form the active ingredients, tight glazed cases will preserve such objects unimpaired for ages. The quadrupeds of the British Museum, for want of attention to these precautions, are *now reduced to thirteen* (exclusive of the smaller species, which may be still decaying in bottles), a few of which ornament the great staircase. Of these, six are named; and one of them recently labelled, '*Felis tigris, jun. tiger-cat, young male, from India,*' really appears to us to be nothing more than a *young bear*! Some of the existing quadrupeds were the gift of Mr Burchill, the Afri-

can traveller; and two, the musk ox and Polar bear, were brought to England by Captain Parry. We do not even find that the skulls of the specimens destroyed by insects have been preserved, though this would have been an important point for comparative anatomy. We hope that they were sent to Surgeons' Hall, with other articles less appropriate. We recollect hearing, some years ago, of a large fire being kindled in the courts of Montague House, into which the rotten or mutilated fragments of various zoological specimens were thrown, and a guard placed over this funeral pile, to prevent any sacrilegious hand from snatching a feather or a bone from destruction.

As a supplement to the devastation which has taken place in the zoological collections of the Museum, we shall offer a few remarks on the state of Sloane's collection of vegetable nature. Of the 12,506 specimens of vegetable substances, including woods, seeds, gums, resins, roots, &c. the condition is not satisfactory; for a small part of them only can be now seen, and these are in a very slovenly state. This immense herbarium filled 334 volumes, including what he himself had collected in the West Indies, and the *horti sicci* of some distinguished botanists. About fifty or sixty volumes only are now visible, piled up on some lofty shelves, in one of the rooms, on a level with the library; and these are black with the dust of half a century, which has not only defiled their exterior, but has penetrated into their inmost recesses; while the leaves and the plants are equally the prey of worms, undisturbed in their sacrilegious banquets. Such a collection should have been preserved in well closed cases; and how long they may thus be kept unimpaired, can be well understood by those who have witnessed the perfect preservation of the Herbarium of the celebrated Linnæus, in the hands of the distinguished botanist who has enriched his country by the acquisition of this treasure.

Such are the stories which we find in very general circulation among naturalists; and, we fear, from the sources through which they have reached our ears, that they are not exaggerated: though nothing would give us greater pleasure than to find that our information was erroneous.

The state of the Library attached to the collections of Natural History, is most wretched. Scarcely a book is there to be found, which has been published for the last fifty years; and in its present state, it may be said to be almost useless to the student. In short, the whole Zoological and Botanical department of the Museum is disgraceful to the nation, and very discreditable to the Trustees, to whose charge it has been consigned.

These Trustees are forty-one in number. Of these, twenty are

trustees from holding certain public offices of honour or emolument;* six are the representatives of the families of Sloane, Cotton, and Harley; and fifteen are chosen by the preceding twenty-six. It is quite obvious, that the election of the fifteen may be said to rest with the first class: and as it consists almost wholly of the ministry for the time being, the King's ministers are in no small degree responsible for the manner in which the Museum is conducted. It is however proper to state, that the numerous other avocations of the majority of the *ex officio* trustees, affords them but little leisure to attend to the internal management of the British Museum. Report states, that either from apathy, or consciousness of want of power to introduce salutary regulations, the family trustees take little part in the management: and that the whole *patronage* and government of the British Museum devolves on two or three of the first class of Trustees. Common fame assigns the *patronage of the appointment of officers* to the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Lord Chancellor, and the Speaker of the House of Commons. Should this be the fact, the present Archbishop may be regarded as the Regent of the Museum: for Lord Eldon is too much involved in the arduous duties of his station, to have any time to spare to the minor concerns of the Museum; and the Speaker at this moment, the son of the Archbishop, has probably as little leisure as inclination to oppose the wishes of his father. It is therefore chiefly to the ecclesiastical head of the Anglican Church, that the public will look for the preservation of so much valuable national property; and we are not without hope, that, in appealing to him, we shall not in vain call his attention to the present lamentable state of the Zoological department of the Museum.

At no period since the opening of the Museum to the pub-

* These are—

Archbishop of Canterbury.
 Lord Chancellor.
 Bishop of London.
 Lord President of the Council.
 First Lord of the Treasury.
 Lord Privy Seal.
 First Lord of the Admiralty.
 Lord Steward.
 Lord Chamberlain.
 2 Principal Secretaries of State.
 Speaker of the House of Commons.

Chancellor of the Exchequer.
 Lord Chief Justice of the King's Bench.
 Lord Chief Justice of the Common Pleas.
 Master of the Rolls.
 Attorney-General.
 Solicitor-General.
 President of the Royal Society.
 President of the College of Physicians.

lic, has there been sufficient attention paid to the preservation of the zoological specimens : and the almost total disappearance of the animals of Sloane's Collection, and of the immense number of donations of this sort from private individuals, is highly disgraceful to those to whose charge this department was committed. We are not prepared to state at what period the work of destruction began to make rapid strides : but we are certain that, before it came under the superintendence of Dr Leach, much irreparable mischief was done. When that gentleman came into office, in 1813, his zeal and talents prompted him to attempt all that the efforts of one man could perform in this Augean stable ; and his generous donation of his own private collections, sufficiently evinced his wish to improve the National Museum. Unfortunately, the ruin of innumerable specimens was already completed ; and, latterly, he was infected with the rage for new names. These circumstances rendered his labours less valuable than they would otherwise have been, to the public ; and his health has compelled him to resign the situation, while the various contents of the vaults are still very imperfectly explored. It is but justice to this gentleman to state, that, while health permitted, he was assiduously employed in arranging a series of Entomological cabinets, which he left in a good state of preservation ; and he had made considerable progress in the classification of the shells in the Museum. The arrangement of the British Zoological Collection is likewise due to him. It is about four years since Dr Leach was occupied in the Museum : and all that appears to have been done since his retirement from its duties, is the restoration of some of the British birds to their old appellations. With the highest respect for the acquirements of his successor, we cannot approve of his appointment to that department, in which he had certainly little previous experience, and of which, we are told, he has even professed his entire ignorance. No talents and no industry, without long previous study, and practical application, can qualify a man for the charge of the Zoological Collection in the British Museum. His duty is not (in the present state of things) to be confined to comparing the articles with a catalogue. He ought to be an experienced zoologist, capable not only of arranging, but describing the various articles, and of ascertaining how far they are still susceptible of being serviceable, where decay has already commenced ; and, when new specimens are obtained, he ought to be able to ascertain whether they be nondescript, or otherwise deserving of the attention of the learned. To much practical knowledge of zoology, he should unite great zeal for the science, and intensity of application for years

to come, before our National Collection can be rendered respectable. In its present state, it is an object of disgust and lamentation to native naturalists, and of ridicule and contempt to foreigners. We have heard hints of a permanent provision for an *extra* Librarian being the cause of the removal of Mr Children, from the antiquarian to the zoological department: But we are unwilling to credit this; and it can scarcely be supposed to be owing to an indisposition on the part of Parliament to supply the *necessary* funds for so essential a part of the Museum, when we reflect on the liberal annual votes for its *general support*. We have examined the printed Parliamentary papers, connected with this subject, for the last twenty-three years (being all at present within our reach); and the following Table shows the sums granted annually 'to the Trustees of the British Museum, to enable them to fulfil their trust,' since the year 1798; and these, it will be seen, do not include sums voted to them for different specific purposes, but merely for the general support of the Institution.

TABLE OF PARLIAMENTARY GRANTS to the BRITISH MUSEUM, in
23 Years.

In the year 1799 L. 2,000	0 0 *	In the year 1808 L. 6,790	0 10
1800 3,000	0 0	1809 7,639	17 2
1801 3,000	0 0	1810 7,132	0 6
1802 6,000	0 0	1811 7,999	19 8
1803 3,000	0 0	1812 7,405	12 11
1804 11,000	0 0 (a)	1813 7,197	19 1 (e)
1805 11,000	0 0 (b)	1814 8,231	11 4
1806 19,000	0 0 (c)	1815 7,066	4 10 (f)
1807 5,556	5 0 (d)		

* In this year Parliament also purchased Dr Hunter's collection for 15,000*l.*, and gave it to the College of Surgeons in London. Subsequent grants have been made to that Body, at different times, for building a hall, lecture-rooms, &c.

(a) In two separate grants.

(b) In two separate grants: besides which, Parliament purchased the Townley collection of Marbles for the Museum, at an expense of 20,000*l.*

(c) In two separate grants.

(d) This was for the general purposes of the Museum: besides which, 4925*l.* were voted for the purchase of the Lansdowne MSS.

(e) For general purposes: besides 1000*l.* for the purchase of books.

(f) For general purposes: besides 1000*l.* for purchasing books, and 2000*l.* allowed for printing the Alexandrian MS. of the Bible, and 250*l.* allowed for preserving specimens of natural history.

TABLE of PARLIAMENTARY GRANTS to the BRITISH MUSEUM, in 23 years.

In the year 1816	L.10,253	19	6	(g)	In the year 1820	L.10,009	16	10
1817	8,577	16	5		1221	8,479	0	0
1818	8,663	16	8	(h)				
1819	10,018	16	8			L.170,922	17	5

To which, if we add the specific grants mentioned in the Notes, amounting to 75,000*l.*, we shall have a sum of no less than 245,000*l.* advanced in that period.

Besides these Parliamentary grants, the British Museum derives a small income from permanent sources. L.30,000 were originally vested in the reduced annuities, by act of Parliament, for its benefit; and 7000*l.* were left as a legacy to the Institution, by Major Arthur Edwards, which became the foundation of what forms a separate account, under title of the Book Fund.

In the accounts given in to Parliament, we find a profit arising from the sale of the Exchequer bills issued for the grants, and some income from the sale of catalogues. The receipt of the Parliamentary grants has of late years been saddled with the expense of Treasury stamps, &c. which, however, only has amounted to between 2*l.* and 3*l.* To complete this sketch of the pecuniary concerns of the Museum, we shall annex a copy of the account rendered to Parliament by the Trustees, during the last Session.

BRITISH MUSEUM, FOR THE YEAR ENDING 25TH MARCH, 1822.

Receipts.

Balance from the last year	-	-	-	-	L.1,089	14	3
Dividend on 30,000 <i>l.</i> reduced annuities	-	-	-	-	900	0	0
Parliamentary grant	-	-	-	-	8,479	0	0
Profit on Exchequer bills	-	-	-	-	67	13	4
Cash received for catalogues	-	-	-	-	337	16	10

L.10,874 4 5

Payments.

Officers salaries	-	-	-	-	L. 2360	0	0
Ditto for extra services	-	-	-	-	1210	0	0

Carry over - L.3570 0 0

(g) For general purposes: besides 35,000*l.* voted for the Elgin marbles, 800*l.* for removing them to the Museum, and 1700*l.* for a temporary building for their reception.

(h) For general purposes: besides which, Parliament purchased the valuable library of Dr Burney for 13,500*l.*

	Brought over	-	L.3570	0	0
Wages and board wages of attendants and servants			1747	10	6
Rent and taxes	-	-	637	11	6
Bookbinding	-	-	453	7	6
Stationary	-	-	144	10	6
Coals	-	-	308	0	0
Candles and lamplighting	-	-	113	12	9
Incidentals for domestic use	-	-	166	8	5
Linen draper	-	-	13	9	0
Clearing goods at the Customhouse and cartage	-	-	101	18	9
Fitting up shelves and other repairs, not paid for by the Board of Works	-	-	372	18	0
Purchase of Minerals	-	-	137	8	0
Improving and preserving the zoological collection	-	-	274	19	6
Coins purchased	-	-	2	10	6
Printing and engraving drawings of catalogues	-	-	363	11	0
Purchase of MSS.	-	-	69	14	0
of books	-	-	216	2	0
Printing of Alexandrian MS.*	-	-	1000	11	3
Making an inventory of Sir Joseph Banks's library	-	-	63	0	0
Treasury stamps, &c., on the Parliamentary grant	-	-	2	2	6
			L.9758	5	8

In this account, we find the heads of the general expenditure; and it appears, that the liberality of Parliament in the last year, leaves a surplus in the Trustees = 1119*l.* 18*s.* 9*d.*: hence, it cannot be alleged that the neglected state of the Zoological department is owing to the *stinginess* of Parliament. The Parliamentary grants for the support of the Museum have, in the last twenty-three years, amounted, as we have seen, to near 250,000*l.*; or have annually averaged, in that period, above 10,000*l.*; and we can scarcely think that the Parliament, which has hitherto been so liberal, would hesitate to provide any trifling addition which might be requisite to pay a qualified keeper of the Zoological collections; provided it were satisfactorily shown that there were no supernumeraries, and no needless expenditure in the other departments. Were the Trustees to represent the lamentable decay and ruin impending over the yet remaining

* Printing this most ancient existing MS. of the Bible, has already cost 7678*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.*; of which sum, according to the last general account, 287*l.* 16*s.* remain unpaid: the remaining 714*l.* 4*s.* (of the last grant of 1000*l.*) will be expended in printing the *Prolegomena*; and it is calculated that 436*l.* more will complete this great undertaking.

Zoological specimens, we certainly think that the greatest sticklers for retrenchment and economy in the expenditure of public money, would be induced to grant what is absolutely necessary to prevent their total destruction. Much might be done, we are persuaded, by a due economy in the other branches of the Establishment. At all events, it seems unreasonable to complain of want of Parliamentary support, while the Trustees, for several years, have had a surplus in their hands, to be carried forward from one account to that of the succeeding year.

If those objects are not reckoned worthy of preservation, there seems a strange inconsistency in expending considerable sums in purchasing them; and it would be better at once to declare, that it is not intended to collect Zoological specimens, than to hold out the lure of a public dépôt for such objects, to tempt the generosity of private contributors, and then to abandon their donations, as well as the national purchases, to certain destruction. If no more care is to be bestowed on these collections, to what purpose are 200*l.* or 300*l.* occasionally expended, 'in preserving Zoological specimens, as may be seen in many of the accounts rendered to Parliament?'

It has been offered as some apology for the state of the Zoological department, that Montague-House affords no suitable accommodation for displaying the acquisitions of the Museum. There is, at first sight, some reason in this plea for the little which is exhibited to the public: but would it not be better to appropriate some of the many rooms, now occupied as *dwellings* by the officers of the Museum, for the reception of the collections of Natural History? According to the return made to two orders of the House of Commons, dated February 16th, 1821, there are fifty-nine apartments so occupied within the walls of Montague-House by eight officers. Surely some of these might be spared for displaying the contents of the Museum,* without any great hardship on the officers. We believe, that a suitable remuneration for this deprivation would amount to a very trifling expense; and we know, that this additional accommodation would be more than sufficient to display all the objects of Natural History, now in the vaults of Montague-House, advantageously to the public, for whose amusement and instruction a National Museum is chiefly valuable.

If this plan be objected to, why not at least secure the objects of Natural History, now mouldering in the vaults, or a

* Mr Planta occupied 10 rooms—Mr Ellis, 9—Mr Combe, 9—Mr Baber, 9—Mr König, 7—Mr Maurice, 4—Mr Bean, 4—Dr Leach, 7.

prey to insects? After sufficient *stoving*, to kill the vermin and their eggs, they might be put in air-tight cases, where they would remain until happier times, when the nation could afford to provide a suitable building for their classification and public exhibition. We have heard of plans for building more safe and commodious receptacles for all our national collections now in Montague-House. The present times are certainly not favourable to very extensive architectural undertakings of this sort: yet the ruinous state of the present building, the enormous sums frequently required for repairs, and the hazard from fire to which the whole is now exposed, tempt us to wish that something should speedily be done to put the invaluable property contained in the British Museum beyond the risk of a conflagration, that would be of incalculable and irreparable mischief to the cause of literature, science, and the fine arts. The daily and hourly danger of such an evil is enhanced by the dwellings of the officers being under the same roof with the collections; and we shudder to think of the consequences of a neglected fire or light in a pile of such combustible materials. The rebuilding of Montague-House on a more commodious plan, and, what the use of cast-iron renders easy, so as to be fire-proof, would be a great national object; and it might be *gradually accomplished* at no very great annual expense, so as to answer the purposes proposed. There is sufficient space in the garden for proceeding in this manner; and it would be preferable to resolve at once to make every addition part of a permanent fire-proof plan, than to expend nearly as much as this would cost, in propping up the present shattered fabric, which, after all, can never be either a safe or commodious receptacle for our now extensive national collection.

In submitting these observations to the public, our aim has been, to stimulate those who are intrusted with the management of the Museum to extend their inquiries in the alleged grievances which, we are confident, require only to be generally known to insure attention, and, we trust, redress.

That Museum, in which so many valuable collections of natural history have been deposited, ought not to be permitted to remain without competent officers to arrange and preserve the specimens; and we cannot sufficiently reprobate the mistaken economy, which would suffer property of immense value to perish, for the paltry saving of a small salary to some naturalist qualified, by his studies and habits, to discharge the duty of his situation. That several such may be found, we know, because more than one well qualified individual became a

candidate for Dr Leach's situation : but it behoves those who have the power of such appointments, to let themselves be influenced by no motives but the known talents and zeal of the candidates, for so important an office as the superintendence of the Zoological department. The highly respectable gentleman, M. König, who is *nominally* at the head of the department of natural history, in fact attends almost exclusively to the mineralogical collection, the state of which is highly to his credit ; but the Zoological department requires the undivided attention of at least one able and experienced naturalist. For a long period, such a person would require to dedicate himself to no other business than the arrangement and preservation of the specimens, and the formation of a scientific catalogue of all the collections committed to his care. These duties would occupy the time of one man for years, in the now neglected state of that department of the Museum, and, to ensure complete success, would require a union of science, skill, zeal and industry, that fall not often to the lot of the same individual.

While calling the attention of the public generally to this subject, we earnestly entreat *all the Trustees* to consider the responsibility which their important trust imposes ; and beg leave to remind them, that their tame acquiescence in any measure which they do not approve, will not acquit them of blame 'in the Court of Honour,' though it may satisfy their indolence that they have not participated in the transaction. We call on them as Gentlemen, as Men of Science, and as Englishmen, to rescue our National Museum from the contemptuous sneers of foreign naturalists, and their country from the opprobrium of being the only State in Europe, with the exception of Turkey, in which national encouragement is not afforded to the study of the productions of ANIMATED NATURE.

ART. VI. *Travels in Egypt and the Holy Land.* By WILLIAM RAE WILSON, Esq. 8vo. pp. 555. Longman, London. 1823.

THIS is the work of an author, pious even to enthusiasm, who appears to have performed his voyage with the view of indulging, upon the spot, those feelings which local associations are calculated to excite in the devout student of the sacred writings, in the neighbourhood of the scenes where the events recorded in them took place. As this was almost exclu-

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MEMORANDA.



PAMPHLETS.

W. I. Fletcher

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CHAPTER XVII.

PUBLIC LIBRARIES IN MANUFACTURING COMMUNITIES.

BY WILLIAM I. FLETCHER,

Assistant Librarian Watkinson Library of Reference.

MILL LIBRARIES—SOCIAL LIBRARIES—ENDOWED FREE LIBRARIES—PUBLIC FREE LIBRARIES—BUILDINGS—GENERAL MANAGEMENT—CATALOGUES—DETAILS OF MANAGEMENT—CHOICE OF BOOKS.

Nowhere does the public library system find a better field than in those communities which are largely engaged in manufactures. The density of the population, the scarcity of books in private ownership, the dreariness and the dangers of boarding house life, the generally unemployed evenings of most of the people, offer conditions eminently suited to give a public library success and usefulness. These facts have been recognized early in the history of most of our manufacturing towns, and attempts have been made to establish libraries on some public or semi-public basis. Four classes of libraries have resulted from these attempts.

I. MILL LIBRARIES.

Some of the larger manufacturing corporations have established extensive libraries for the use of their employés. That of the Pacific Mills, in Lawrence, Mass., is a good example of this class. To its establishment the corporation contributed generously, but it is now maintained by a contribution of one cent a week from each employé. This assessment is deducted from the wages by the paymaster, in accordance with an agreement entered into by each employé on entering the service of the corporation, and as the average number of hands employed is from four thousand to four thousand five hundred, the sum thus realized is sufficient to support the library. It is open every evening for the drawing of books, and for the use of its well furnished reading room. The library now contains some 6,000 volumes, and while there is sufficient light reading to furnish entertainment for those who seek nothing more, there is also a large and growing accumulation of the best books in all departments of literature which are adapted to the needs of a circulating library. No one familiar with the workings of this great mill can fail to see the benefit of the library in cultivating among the operatives literary tastes and ambitions, and an *esprit du*

corps of great value to all the interests of the corporation. The same is true of the many other instances of libraries of this class.¹

II. SOCIAL LIBRARIES.

Libraries of this class are not peculiar to manufacturing towns, as they have been nowhere else so successful as in the large cities, where they are, in most cases, known as mercantile libraries. But the manufacturing towns have nearly all had their library societies, which have filled an important place in the cultivation of literary tastes, and in preparing the way for the more modern system of free libraries. Most of the present free libraries have, in fact, been formed on the nucleus furnished by a social library, and would probably have never come into existence without the spur to public effort which is found in the gift of such a nucleus. Social libraries seem now to have had their day, and, even where they have not been superseded by free libraries, are apparently losing ground in the presence of the general expectation of better things.

III. ENDOWED FREE LIBRARIES.

To the honor of the men who have labored at the foundation of our great manufacturing interests, and have received large wealth as their merited return, it is to be observed that they have, in many instances, spent this wealth with a liberal hand for the benefit of the people. Their benefactions have often taken the form of a gift or bequest for the establishment or support and enlargement of a public library. What could be a better use of wealth acquired by the application of superior skill and intelligence to manufactures, than to employ it in dif-

¹ The following from O. A. Archer, librarian of the Blackinton (Mass.) Library, affords another illustration of the good a public library will do in a community largely composed of operatives in manufactories :

"On first settling in the village, about eighteen years ago, I found a large number of men and boys who had nothing to read, and they spent their evenings in lounging at the village store. I offered to loan them books from my private library, which offer was eagerly accepted. The demand was soon greater than the supply, and I determined to commence collecting a library for the use of the public. A small sum was raised by subscription in the outset, and although our additions have not since been large, we have kept the library in good condition, and have managed to obtain from time to time such new works as the character of our readers seemed to demand.

"The patrons of the library are mainly operatives, who, after a day of toil, require reading largely of a light character, as a means of relaxation; hence a large part of our books are of the best class of fiction. The average factory girl takes amazingly to Mary J. Holmes, Marion Harland, and the like, while many of the men read Irving, Scott; Dickens, and Thackeray. Books of travel are favorites, especially with the young folks, while the works of Miss Alcott and Sophie May are in great demand. In order to make a library in a given locality of real service to the people, much discrimination is needful in selecting books that will be read. A thousand volumes of Greek and Roman classics, or scientific works, would be of very little use in a small factory village. Still, the aim with us is to get the best of every class, and gradually work in books of a higher class, as the demand for them is created."—EDITORS.

fusing intelligence among those who have contributed to its accumulation by honest toil? Such things as these are the most serious obstacles in the way of those who would array labor against capital as against a natural enemy.

In a few cases a bequest has furnished all the means for the establishment and support of a library, making it a free gift to the people. That beneficence is doubtless better directed which is so applied as to make its usefulness and availability depend on more or less effort on the part of the beneficiaries. Thus, the gift of a building will stimulate effort in the matter of furnishing its shelves with books; or the supply of books in one important department will excite ambition to keep the other departments up with it. A town which makes the liberality of individuals a reason for not doing anything in its public capacity in any department of education or progress, is sure to fall behind those which act on the principle that effort to procure a good thing greatly enhances its value.

IV. PUBLIC FREE LIBRARIES.

This expression is used for want of a better to characterize those libraries which are maintained as a part of the regular educational system, free to all, and supported by taxation. This is without doubt the character of the public library of the future, the outcome of all the experiments of the past. Only twenty-five years have elapsed since the bill permitting the laying of rates for the maintenance of public libraries passed the British Parliament, and a similar one was adopted in the Massachusetts legislature. Many of the States have enacted laws encouraging the establishment of public libraries, and every year adds to the number.

That the large manufacturing towns, both in England and in this country, have been among the first to avail themselves of the privilege of supporting a public library at the public expense, shows the special adaptedness of the system to such communities. Probably no American town or city can show so good a record of unanimity in this matter as did the city of Manchester, England, which voted to lay a rate for library support by a majority of almost exactly one hundred to one. It should be stated that the library at Manchester was not established by rates alone, but enjoyed a generous endowment. The public libraries of Manchester, as the institution with its branches is called, are in the very front rank of success and usefulness, their yearly circulation now being not far from half a million of volumes.

Let it be admitted, then, that this is the form which public libraries should take to achieve the highest success, especially in a manufacturing community, and let all efforts to promote their establishment be made in the direction of inciting, encouraging, and helping the people to help themselves in this matter. Leaving this branch of the subject, which is of too general application to be dwelt on at length in this paper, it will next be in order to consider some of the details of library administration in manufacturing towns.

BUILDINGS.

In an industrial community the library should be placed where it will be the most likely to attract the attention and induce the visits of the large class who would not go far in search of it. The corner of important streets in the heart of the town is the proper place for it. The natural desire to remove it from the bustle of business and place it in some quiet, secluded spot should be sacrificed to more practical considerations when there is a conflict. For the same reason it is doubtful whether it is wise to maintain so high a standard of excellence in the construction of a building as has generally been done. While æsthetic considerations should not be lost sight of, and the building should by no means be unsightly, it is more important that it should be practically adapted to its uses, and its capacity not be reduced to small limits on account of the expensive style of the work. In many places the desire to secure an elegant building according to the conventional standards has caused the long postponement of the erection of any building at all, while in others the expense of the work when done has seriously impaired the resources available for books and the support of the library. The library is more than the building, and must not be sacrificed to it. The attempts at adherence to the Gothic or any other ancient style of architecture in buildings for modern public libraries have not been successful, and cannot be in the nature of the case. At the same time, the expense attending such attempts is unduly large. Another point involving large expense has been the desire to put up absolutely fire proof structures. This matter is of importance where the preservation of rare and costly books is concerned, but in regard to such libraries as we are considering there is little occasion for solicitude, as the books can generally be readily replaced, and insurance, which can be had at low rates, will furnish all needed security. In one of the cities of New England, there is a library built at a cost of nearly \$100,000, which is a model of substantial elegance and architectural beauty, but which is admitted to be practically unsuited to the requirements of the case. Had one-half of the money been expended in a plain structure containing rooms arranged throughout primarily with reference to use and convenience, probably it would have furnished better and ampler accommodations than the present building; while the rest of the money, invested as a book fund, would at once place the library on an independent footing.

Especially, in such communities as we are now considering, is it a mistake to have the library on the second floor, surrendering the ground floor to other uses. The same arguments which favor placing the building in a central situation, easy of access, apply equally to this point. At least the reading room and the circulating department should be on the street level. The main library may be placed on the second floor, and reached (for use in the room) by a separate entrance, while a few thousand volumes of the books most called for are kept in the delivery room.

below, which should communicate with the library by easy stairs or a dumb-waiter. In small libraries, two attendants could do all the work by this arrangement as well as though the delivery of books were done in the library proper, as is the case in too many of our public libraries; where it almost, if not quite, prevents the use of the library room for purposes of study. The great desideratum is, that in making the plans for a library building, the internal arrangements should be devised by a person practically acquainted with the workings of such a library as the building is intended to accommodate, and not by architects or building committees without such experimental knowledge.

GENERAL MANAGEMENT.

In a manufacturing community it is a matter of great importance and of no less difficulty to so conduct the public library that it shall be a favorite resort of all classes. It must neither repel the masses by high standards and an atmosphere of dignified respectability which will give it the odor of aristocracy, nor lose its hold on people of culture and refinement by descending to low standards and becoming the meeting place of a disorderly rabble. Where the artisan and laboring classes are in the majority their interests should be looked after more jealously than those of any other class, but it may, with proper care, be done in such a way that both of the extremes mentioned will be avoided. Good order, decorum, and cleanliness may be enforced without the employment of severe and obnoxious restrictions. People disinclined to these virtues may be dealt with firmly but kindly, and the library become the means of introducing a wholesome reform into their lives in all departments. The simple keeping of library books in clean paper covers is worth more than a little for its educational influence. Few persons will detect themselves soiling a clean book without experiencing a sense of shame salutary in its tendency; while the receiving a book from the library in a soiled and dilapidated condition will do little to instil that respect for the very outside of a book which ought always to be felt. The expense of re-covering the books as often as they are soiled and worn is but little; on the average they will need covering once for every ten times they are drawn, and the whole cost of covering will not exceed one cent each.

The character of the attendants and their bearing towards the patrons of the library deserve close attention in a library having a large constituency of comparatively uncultivated people. To the good breeding and knowledge of books which will make them acceptable to the literary portion of the community, they should add that affability, kindness, and sympathy with even the poorest attempts at culture which will make them useful and agreeable to all. When the library is thronged with applicants for books, so that special attention to one will wrong others, the work must of course be done in a mechanical manner, with a view to rapidity of execution rather than anything else. But even then

courtesy and politeness should not be forgotten, and when there is leisure for it, applicants for books should receive the best assistance the attendants can render in the form of information not furnished by the catalogues, or general aid in making selections. Even the subordinate attendants, so far as they stand between the books and the people, should have at least a taste for books and an appreciation of their own position. Cheapness is not the most desirable quality in library work.

CATALOGUES.

The only thing to be said on this point that has special reference to industrial communities is to insist on the catalogues being made with an eye not to bibliographical and scholarly excellence alone, but also and especially to the wants of the common people. Nothing further is necessary than to refer to the recent class lists of the Boston Public Library as models of catalogues which meet this requirement. Under the name of each author is given a brief account of the person, and under each subject title of importance we have not only a list of the works on the subject, but also a note giving hints as to their comparative value and special excellencies, and referring to review articles and other sources of further information.

DETAILS OF MANAGEMENT.

With the shifting population of a manufacturing town it is necessary that some efficient means be employed to protect the public library against the loss of books by loans to irresponsible persons. The means employed for this purpose are various. Sometimes a deposit of money equivalent to the value of the books borrowed is required from all persons not possessing business responsibility and credit. A more common system is that in use in Manchester, England, and in many places in this country, by which every borrower is required to deposit a certificate signed by some well known and responsible person guaranteeing the library against loss. The advantages of this system are found in its entire impartiality, the lightness of the burden imposed by it on applicants, and the almost perfect security it affords when well carried out. In all places where it has been tried it seems to have given great satisfaction. Another system well adapted to manufacturing communities is that in which the guarantee certificates are signed not by respectable citizens at large, but by the members of a regularly constituted board of reference, consisting of the clergymen, school boards, and city officials. In this case the certificates are not genuine guarantees against loss, but simply evidences of the acquaintance of the person signing with the applicant and the facts cited in the form of application. This system has worked well and given good satisfaction in places where it has been tried, though it would seem to be inferior to the other in some respects. The difficulties arising from frequent changes

of residence without notice being given at the library, require that a new registration should be occasionally made.

Experience shows that the losses of books by public libraries are due to the carelessness far oftener than to the wrong intent of borrowers. The few cases of attempt to defraud which a librarian meets with are comparatively easy to deal with, but the carelessness which causes so many delinquencies is the source of continual difficulty, and is the greatest trial of the librarian who strives after accuracy and method. It is probable that if figures could be compared on this point, it would be seen that the people in manufacturing towns are more readily subjected to library discipline, if the expression may be used, than those whose business and daily lives are less a matter of routine. The employés in our large mills and other establishments learn habits of regularity and punctuality, and also of obedience to rules, which are wanting in many classes of our population. But in manufacturing towns more need exists of precautions to guard against losses through removals, as such removals are very frequent. To show how unstable is this population, the fact may be cited that one of our large corporations, employing four thousand hands, reports that it employs and discharges every year a number equal to or even greater than the whole number employed. Such a state of things as this demands of the public library two things: first, the best possible system of keeping account of the books loaned; and, second, constant vigilance and promptness in the carrying out of the system. The system of recording loans by means of separate slips, one for each entry made, kept in numerical order in a drawer having compartments for the separate days, which system was first introduced in the Boston Public Library, and has now been adopted either with or without some modifications in nearly all the leading libraries, has proved to be far superior to any other yet employed. Its great excellence is in the fact that the retention of books over time is shown by the record, without the least expenditure of time or labor in searching for such facts, making it possible to serve a notice by mail on persons retaining books over time within twenty-four hours after they become due. If the mail notice, in any case, should fail to reach the party addressed, the fact would soon be known to the librarian, and a messenger put on track of the book within a very few days, by which means, books borrowed by persons who have even moved out of town can generally be recovered.

Another recommendation of such a system as this, is found in the fact that it will inspire in the patrons of the library a respect for its rules and management, which will be most salutary and useful. But even such a system is of little value if its administration is not as faithful and energetic as the system is thorough. Left to young and incompetent assistants, it will break down under the weight of errors in the record, and consequent difficulties with borrowers. Except where a thoroughly competent assistant can be employed to take charge of this department, the

chief officer of the library should give it his constant personal supervision. In the case of such libraries as we are now considering, the circulating department should be recognized as altogether the most important, and the best talent employed in the library should be devoted to its care and improvement. A great deal will be gained in the direction of interesting the public in the library and in its intelligent use, if it is made apparent that the management of the library is actively in sympathy with the popular department, and makes that the object of its chief solicitude. If, on the other hand, the librarian withdraws himself to the seclusion of a private office, and devotes his efforts to the collection and building up of a library which shall conform to his personal ideas of excellence rather than to the wants of the community, gratifying his own tastes as he would in regard to his own private library, the institution will certainly fail of doing the work it ought, above all else, to do. And this brings us naturally to the consideration of the

CHOICE OF BOOKS.

No question connected with public libraries has been so much discussed, or is of such generally recognized importance, as that of the kinds of reading to be furnished. On the one hand, all kinds of arguments—from the political one, that it is not in the province of government to furnish the people with mere recreation, to the religious one, that it is wicked to read novels—have been urged against the admission of any but the very highest order of fictitious works; while, on the other hand, the sweeping assertion is made by some that the public library cannot refuse to supply whatever the public sentiment calls for. The mean between these two extremes is doubtless the true view of the case. The managers of the public library are no less bound to control and shape the institution in their charge so as to produce the best result than are the managers of the school system. To say that calls for books should be accepted as the indications of what should be furnished, is to make their office a merely mechanical and perfunctory one. In such communities as we are especially considering, adherence to such a principle as this would make the library a mere slop shop of sensational fiction. But in avoiding the Scylla of unlimited trash, the Charybdis of too high a standard must be equally steered clear of. Those who deprecate the free supply of such fictitious works as the public demands, are generally in favor of the entire exclusion of fiction of a sensational cast, a course which will unavoidably result in alienating from the library the very class most needing its beneficial influence. The old recipe for cooking a hare, which begins with “first catch your hare,” may well be applied to the process of elevating the tastes of the uncultivated masses. Let the library, then, contain just enough of the mere confectionery of literature to secure the interest in it of readers of the lowest—not depraved—tastes; but let this be so dealt out as may best make it serve its main purpose of a

stepping stone to something better. To be more definite, we would recommend that the library contain one or two sets of the works of that galaxy of female authors whose names always appear in the focus of such a discussion as this, and of their compeers of the other sex; while such authors as Mrs. Craik, Mrs. Stowe, Mrs. Whitney, Miss Alcott (we purposely mention these rather than the masters of fiction, as better adapted to replace the others) are duplicated to a much greater extent. Then by care in the matter of advising readers whose most desired books are "all out," very much may be done to give them an introduction to these writers, who will, in many cases, win them to a higher level of reading.

This result will also be furthered by such an arrangement of the catalogue that books of an inferior order cannot be looked for without encountering the titles of those of greater value. This is one of the strongest arguments against furnishing a separate catalogue or list of works of fiction; that it makes it possible for a reader to forget that the library contains anything else.

It will naturally be made a leading object of the public library in an industrial community to furnish scientific and mechanical books adapted to assist artisans in their special callings, particularly in fitting themselves for advancement and promotion, and improving the quality of their work. Just at this time, when special efforts are being made to save to the country the large sums annually sent abroad to remunerate foreign workers in the arts of design, by thorough and wide spread instruction in those arts among ourselves, all works which can be had bearing on these and kindred subjects will be sought. Facilities should be furnished for the making of copies from books of engravings, etc., and the freest use of all works on the fine arts allowed that is consistent with their proper preservation. But there is little need of dwelling on points so obvious; and we will turn to another not so generally recognized—the importance of providing, even in manufacturing communities, for liberal literary culture. We ought to have said especially in manufacturing communities, for there is greater need here than in those places in which private libraries abound, and the English classics at least are to be found in nearly every house. After all that can be said, the real mission of the public library is to furnish, not recreation, not the means of earning a better living, but culture; and whatever we have said as to its mission being limited by the wants of the people must be understood to mean by their real wants, not their fancied ones. "Culture," says Matthew Arnold, "is indispensably necessary, . . . the poor require it as much as the rich, . . . and culture is reading; but reading with a purpose to guide it, and with system. He does a good work who does anything to help this; indeed, it is the one essential service now to be rendered to education." This is the service rendered by the public library if it not only supplies books, but educates the people in their use. And nowhere is there more occasion to give prominence to this latter function of the library than in manufacturing communities.

CHAPTER XVIII.

PUBLIC LIBRARIES AND THE YOUNG.

BY WILLIAM I. FLETCHER,

Assistant Librarian Watkinson Library of Reference.

USE OF LIBRARIES BY THE YOUNG — RESTRICTIONS AS TO AGE DISCUSSED — PARENTAL SUPERVISION — THE LIBRARY AND THE SCHOOL — CHOICE OF JUVENILE BOOKS — CULTIVATING A TASTE FOR GOOD READING.

What shall the public library do for the young, and how? is a question of acknowledged importance. The remarkable development of "juvenile literature" testifies to the growing importance of this portion of the community in the eyes of book producers, while the character of much of this literature, which is now almost thrust into the hands of youth, is such as to excite grave doubts as to its being of any service, intellectual or moral. In this state of things the public library is looked to by some with hope, and by others with fear, according as its management is apparently such as to draw young readers away from merely frivolous reading, or to make such reading more accessible and encourage them in the use of it; hence the importance of a judicious administration of the library in this regard.

One of the first questions to be met in arranging a code of rules for the government of a public library relates to the age at which young persons shall be admitted to its privileges. There is no usage on this point which can be called common, but most libraries fix a certain age, as twelve or fourteen, below which candidates for admission are ineligible. Only a few of the most recently established libraries have adopted what seems to be the right solution of this question, by making no restriction whatever as to age. This course recommends itself as the wisest and the most consistent with the idea of the public library on many grounds.

In the first place, age is no criterion of mental condition and capacity. So varying is the date of the awakening of intellectual life, and the rapidity of its progress, that height of stature might almost as well be taken for its measure as length of years. In every community there are some young minds of peculiar gifts and precocious development, as fit to cope with the masterpieces of literature at ten years of age, as the average person at twenty, and more appreciative of them. From this class come the minds which rule the world of mind, and confer the greatest benefits on the race. How can the public library do more for

the intellectual culture of the whole community than by setting forward in their careers those who will be the teachers and leaders of their generation? In how many of the lives of those who have been eminent in literature and science do we find a youth almost discouraged because deprived of the means of intellectual growth. The lack of appreciation of youthful demands for culture is one of the saddest chapters in the history of the world's comprehending not the light which comes into it. Our public libraries will fail in an important part of their mission if they shut out from their treasures minds craving the best, and for the best purposes, because, forsooth, the child is too young to read good books.

Some will be found to advocate the exclusion of such searchers for knowledge on the ground that precocious tastes should be repressed in the interests of physical health. But a careful investigation of the facts in such cases can hardly fail to convince one that in them repression is the last thing that will bring about bodily health and vigor. There should doubtless be regulation, but nothing will be so likely to conduce to the health and physical well being of a person with strong mental cravings as the reasonable satisfaction of those cravings. Cases can be cited where children, having what seemed to be a premature development of mental qualities coupled with weak or even diseased bodily constitutions, have rapidly improved in health when circumstances have allowed the free exercise of their intellectual powers, and have finally attained a maturity vigorous alike in body and mind. This is in the nature of a digression, but it can do no harm to call attention thus to the facts which contradict the common notion that intellectual precocity should be discouraged. Nature is the best guide, and it is in accordance with all her workings, that when she has in hand the production of a giant of intellect, the young Hercules should astonish observers by feats of strength even in his cradle. Let not the public library, then, be found working against nature by establishing, as far as its influence goes, a dead level of intellectual attainments for all persons below a certain age.

But there is a much larger class of young persons who ought not to be excluded from the library, not because they have decided intellectual cravings and are mentally mature, but because they have capacities for the cultivation of good tastes, and because the cultivation of such tastes cannot be begun too early. There is no greater mistake in morals than that often covered by the saying, harmless enough literally, "Boys will be boys." This saying is used perhaps oftener than for any other purpose to justify boys in doing things which are morally not fit for men to do, and is thus the expression of that great error that immoralities early in life are to be expected and should not be severely deprecated. The same misconception of the relations of youth to maturity and of nature's great laws of growth and development, is seen in that common idea that children need not be expected to have any literary tastes; that they may well be allowed to confine their reading to the

frivolous, the merely amusing. That this view is an erroneous one thought and observation agree in showing. Much like the caution of the mother who would not allow her son to bathe in the river till he had learned to swim, is that of those who would have youth wait till a certain age, when they ought to have good tastes formed, before they can be admitted to companionship with the best influences for the cultivation of them. Who will presume to set the age at which a child may first be stirred with the beginnings of a healthy intellectual appetite on getting a taste of the strong meat of good literature? This point is one of the first importance. No after efforts can accomplish what is done with ease early in life in the way of forming habits either mental or moral, and if there is any truth in the idea that the public library is not merely a storehouse for the supply of the wants of the reading public, but also and especially an educational institution which shall create wants where they do not exist, then the library ought to bring its influences to bear on the young as early as possible.

And this is not a question of inducing young persons to read, but of directing their reading into right channels. For in these times there is little probability that exclusion from the public library will prevent their reading. Poor, indeed, in all manner of resources, must be the child who cannot now buy, beg, or borrow a fair supply of reading of some kind; so that exclusion from the library is likely to be a shutting up of the boy or girl to dime novels and story papers as the staple of reading. Complaints are often made that public libraries foster a taste for light reading, especially among the young. Those who make this complaint too often fail to perceive that the tastes indulged by those who are admitted to the use of the public library at the age of twelve or fourteen, are the tastes formed in the previous years of exclusion. A slight examination of facts, such as can be furnished by any librarian of experience in a circulating public library, will show how little force there is in this objection.

Nor should it be forgotten, in considering this question, that to very many young people youth is the time when they have more leisure for reading than any other portion of life is likely to furnish. At the age of twelve or fourteen, or even earlier, they are set at work to earn their living, and thereafter their opportunities for culture are but slight, nor are their circumstances such as to encourage them then in such a work. We cannot begin too early to give them a bent towards culture which shall abide by them and raise them above the work-a-day world which will demand so large a share of their time and strength. The mechanic, the farmer, the man in any walk of life, who has early formed good habits of reading, is the one who will magnify his calling, and occupy the highest positions in it. And to the thousands of young people, in whose homes there is none of the atmosphere of culture or of the appliances for it, the public library ought to furnish the means of keeping pace intellectually with the more favored children of homes where good

books abound and their subtle influence extends even to those who are too young to read and understand them. If it fails to do this it is hardly a fit adjunct to our school system, whose aim it is to give every man a chance to be the equal of every other man, if he can.

It is not claimed that the arguments used in support of an age limitation are of no force; but it is believed that they are founded on objections to the admission of the young to library privileges which are good only as against an indiscriminate and not properly regulated admission, and which are not applicable to the extension of the use of the library to the young under such conditions and restrictions as are required by their peculiar circumstances.

For example, the public library ought not to furnish young persons with a means of avoiding parental supervision of their reading. A regulation making the written consent of the parent a prerequisite to the registration of the name of a minor, and the continuance of such consent a condition of the continuance of the privilege, will take from parents all cause for complaint in this regard.

Neither should the library be allowed to stand between pupils in school and their studies, as it is often complained that it does. To remove this difficulty, the relations of the library to the school system should be such that teachers should be able to regulate the use of the library by those pupils whose studies are evidently interfered with by their miscellaneous reading. The use of the library would thus be a stimulus to endeavor on the part of pupils who would regard its loss as the probable result of lack of diligence in their studies.

Again, it must be understood that to the young, as to all others, the library is open only during good behavior. The common idea that children and youth are more likely than older persons to commit offenses against library discipline is not borne out by experience; but were it true, a strict enforcement of rules as to fines and penalties would protect the library against loss and injury, the fear of suspension from the use of the library as the result of carelessness in its use, operating more strongly than any other motive to prevent such carelessness.

If there are other objections to the indiscriminate admission of the young to the library, they can also be met by such regulations as readily suggest themselves, and should not be allowed to count as arguments against a judicious and proper extension of the benefits of the library to the young.

CHOICE OF BOOKS.

But when the doors of the public library are thrown open to the young, and they are recognized as an important class of its patrons, the question comes up, What shall the library furnish to this class in order to meet its wants? If the object of the library is understood to be simply the supplying of the wants of the reading public, and the young are considered as a portion of that public, the question is very easily answered by

saying, Give them what they call for that is not positively injurious in its tendency. But if we regard the public library as an educational means rather than a mere clubbing arrangement for the economical supply of reading, just as the gas company is for the supply of artificial light, it becomes of importance, especially with reference to the young, who are the most susceptible to educating influences, that they should receive from the library that which will do them good; and the managers of the library appear not as caterers to a master whose will is the rule as to what shall be furnished, but rather as the trainers of gymnasts who seek to provide that which will be of the greatest service to their men. No doubt both these elements enter into a true conception of the duty of library managers; but when we are regarding especially the young, the latter view comes nearer the truth than the other.

In the first place, among the special requirements of the young is this, that the library shall interest and be attractive to them. The attitude of some public libraries toward the young and the uncultivated seems to say to them, "We cannot encourage you in your low state of culture; you must come up to the level of appreciating what is really high toned in literature, or we cannot help you." The public library being, however, largely if not mainly for the benefit of the uncultivated, must, to a large extent, come down to the level of this class and meet them on common ground. Every library ought to have a large list of good juvenile books, a statement which at once raises the question, What are good juvenile books? This is one of the vexed questions of the literary world, closely allied to the one which has so often been mooted in the press and the pulpit, as to the utility and propriety of novel reading. But while this question is one on which there are great differences of opinion, there are a few things which may be said on it without diffidence or the fear of successful contradiction. Of this kind is the remark that good juvenile books must have something positively good about them. They should be not merely amusing or entertaining and harmless, but instructive and stimulating to the better nature. Fortunately such books are not so rare as they have been. Some of the best minds are now being turned to the work of providing them. Within a few months such honored names in the world of letters as those of Hamerton and Higginson have been added to the list which contains those of "Peter Parley," Jacob Abbott, "Walter Aimwell," Elijah Kellogg, Thomas Hughes, and others who have devoted their talents, not to the amusement, but to the instruction and culture of youth. The names of some of the most popular writers for young people in our day are not ranked with those mentioned above, not because their productions are positively injurious, but because they lack the positively good qualities demanded by our definition.

There is a danger to youth in reading some books which are not open to the charge of directly injurious tendencies. Many of the most popular juveniles, while running over with excellent "morals," are unwhole-

some mental food for the young, for the reason that they are essentially untrue. That is, they give false views of life, making it consist, if it be worth living, of a series of adventures, hair-breadth escapes; encounters with tyrannical schoolmasters and unnatural parents; sea voyages in which the green hand commands a ship and defeats a mutiny out of sheer smartness; rides on runaway locomotives, strokes of good luck, and a persistent turning up of things just when they are wanted,—all of which is calculated in the long run to lead away the young imagination and impart discontent with the common lot of an uneventful life.

Books of adventure seem to meet a real want in the minds of the young, and should not be entirely ruled out; but they cannot be included among the books the reading of which should be encouraged or greatly extended. In the public library it will be found perhaps necessary not to exclude this class of juvenile books entirely. Such an exclusion is not here advocated, but it is rather urged that they should not form the staple of juvenile reading furnished by the library. The better books should be duplicated so as to be on hand when called for; these should be provided in such numbers merely that they can occasionally be had as the "seasoning" to a course of good reading.

But the young patrons of the library ought not to be encouraged in confining their reading to juveniles, of no matter how good quality. It is the one great evil of this era of juvenile books, good and bad, that by supplying mental food in the form fit for mere children, they postpone the attainment of a taste for the strong meat of real literature; and the public library ought to be influential in exalting this real literature and keeping it before the people, stemming with it the current of trash which is so eagerly welcomed because it is new or because it is interesting. When children were driven to read the same books as their elders or not to read at all, there were doubtless thousands, probably the majority of all, who chose the latter alternative, and read but very little in their younger years. This class is better off now than then by the greater inducements offered them to mental culture in the increased facilities provided for it. But there seems to be danger that the ease and smoothness of the royal road to knowledge now provided in the great array of easy books in all departments will not conduce to the formation of such mental growths as resulted from the pursuit of knowledge under difficulties. There is doubtless more knowledge; but is there as much power and muscle of mind?

However this may be, none can fail to recognize the importance of setting young people in the way of reading the best books early in life. And as the public library is likely to be the one place where the masters of literature can be found, it is essential that here they should be put by every available means in communication with and under the influence of these masters.

It only remains now to say that, as we have before intimated, the public library should be viewed as an adjunct of the public school sys-

tem, and to suggest that in one or two ways the school may work together with the library in directing the reading of the young. There is the matter of themes for the writing of compositions; by selecting subjects on which information can be had at the library, the teacher can send the pupil to the library as a student, and readily put him in communication with, and excite his interest in, classes of books to which he has been a stranger and indifferent. Again, in the study of the history of English literature, a study which, to the credit of our teachers be it said, is being rapidly extended, the pupils may be induced to take new interest, and gain greatly in point of real culture by being referred for illustrative matter to the public library.

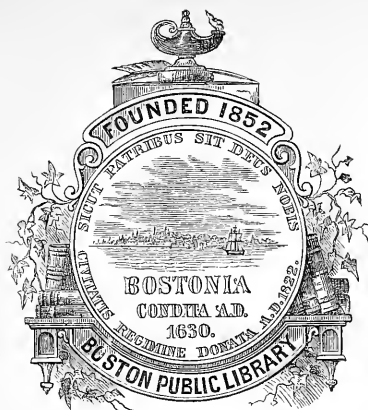
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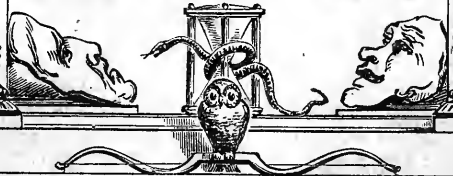
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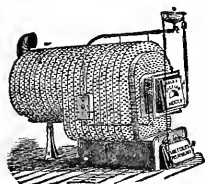
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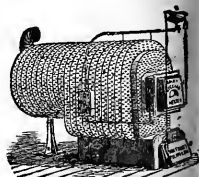
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PUBLIC LIBRARIES IN THE UNITED STATES.

MANY a mickle makes a muckle, says the proverb, and whoever looks into the operations of society on the great scale will find how true the saying is. A national debt, a national crop, the cattle feeding on the hills of a broad continent, the school-going children of a populous commonwealth, the number of its vagabonds and criminals at large or in jail, all need such an array of figures for their expression that the amounts really convey no impression to the mind. The number of books collected in public libraries does not reach such unwieldy proportions as these, but it is still very large. The information gathered by the Bureau of Education for the purpose of exhibiting the condition of American society at the end of the first century of our independence shows that the libraries which are classed as "public" number 3,682 in the United States, and contain 12,276,964 volumes and 1,500,000 pamphlets.

Of our private libraries little is known. In 1870 the census-takers reported 107,673 collections of this class, containing in all 25,571,503 volumes, but these numbers are known to be much below the truth. The acute and practical superintendent of the ninth census declared that this part of his work had no value, and even said that "the statistics of private libraries are not, from any proper point of view, among the desirable inquiries of the census." What a commentary upon the progress of society is contained in this opinion of the most accomplished statistician ever engaged in studying our social movements! It is but a short time since the owning of books was a mark of superior station in the world. What has produced the change?

We can perhaps learn the cause of it better by a comparison than by direct study of bibliographical history. In

Voltaire's time thermometers were so great a rarity that the owner of one of them was considered to be a savant. Time and social progress have so completely altered this state of things that thermometers are now made in factories, are owned by all classes, and applied to the commonest uses. The thermometers hanging on our walls no longer indicate familiarity with science, but merely that a new tool has been added to household appliances. So in book-making. The art which once served chiefly to record discoveries in knowledge, conduct controversies in polemics, philosophy, and politics, and for other grave and important purposes now adds to these a multitude of common uses. A library may contain scores and even hundreds of volumes, and yet have nothing but those books which have served in the education and amusement of the children in an ordinary family. Or it may be the result of a chance aggregation of "railway literature," bought to relieve the tediousness of travel. Or it may consist, as is sometimes the case, of the small and precious collections in frontier log huts, of the gratuitous contributions of the patent medicine vender, the plough-maker, and the lightning-rod man, mingled with the dear-bought subscription books of the wandering peddler! Books are so common that the possession of them is no longer an indication of the intellectual tendency of their possessors.

With libraries open to the public the case is different. Their condition affords one standard by which the character and tastes of the people may be measured.

The United States are considered to be far behind foreign countries in their book collections. We have nothing to compare with Dresden, Berlin, and Paris, with their 500,000, 700,000, and 2,000,000 volumes. We do not reach

the wealth of even such second-rate places as Wolfenbüttel, Breslau, and Göttingen, if their collections are correctly reported at 300,000, 340,000, and 400,000 volumes. And yet each year witnesses the purchase of more than 400,000 volumes for our public libraries, taken collectively, a number that is larger than any one collection in this country! The permanent fund of our libraries, so far as known, amounts to \$6,105,581 and their annual income to \$1,398,756. These figures do not, in fact, represent anything like the truth, for not half the libraries reported their permanent fund, or their yearly purchases, and only one-quarter reported their yearly income. About one-fifth of the whole number (769 exactly) report their expenditures for new books at \$562,407, and in 742 libraries the use of books amounts to 8,879,869 volumes yearly. In these figures Sunday-school libraries, one of the most constantly used kinds, are not included. Looking at the magnitude of the numbers reported, and considering all that is omitted, we obtain an inkling of the immense exchange of books among the people from these public distribution points.

The existing public libraries, excluding all under 300 volumes, and all in Sunday-schools of whatever size, may be considered as belonging to six principal divisions. These, with the number of libraries and the volumes in each, are as follows:

<i>Class.</i>	<i>No. Libraries.</i>	<i>No. Volumes.</i>
Educational.....	1,577	3,442,799
Professional.....	360	1,403,739
Historical.....	51	421,794
Government.....	122	1,562,597
Proprietary Public.	1,109	3,223,555
Free Public.....	342	1,909,444
Miscellaneous.....	121	305,016
	<hr/> 3,682	<hr/> 12,276,964

The "miscellaneous" class contains the libraries of secret and benevolent societies, and some others difficult to arrange. On the whole it might be better to class them with the proprietary public libraries.

Educational libraries are the oldest in the country, and the most venerable

of them is naturally that of the oldest educational institution, Harvard University, which dates from 1638. Before the end of that century three others had been started, and singularly enough, all at about the same time: King William school at Annapolis, 1697, King's Chapel Library at Boston, 1698, and Christ church at Philadelphia, 1698. Yale and William and Mary Colleges began their collections in 1700, and then proprietary libraries began their existence. The Proprietors' Library in Pomfret, Conn., was founded in 1737, Redwood, in Newport, 1747, and the Library Society, Charleston, S. C., 1748. Philadelphia was especially active at that early period, establishing no less than five, the Library Company in 1731, Carpenters', 1736, Four Monthly Meetings of Friends, 1742, Philosophical Society, 1743, and Loganian, 1745. Fifty-one of these enterprises were begun in the second half of the eighteenth century, but failure and consolidation brought the number of living libraries in 1800 down to forty-nine. In 1776 twenty-nine were in existence, and from that time the growth has been as follows:

<i>Libraries formed.</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Present size.</i>
From 1775 to 1800.....	30	242,171 vols.
" 1800 to 1825.....	179	2,053,113 "
" 1825 to 1850.....	551	2,807,218 "
" 1850 to 1875.....	2,240	5,481,068 "

This little table brings out very strikingly the distinctive peculiarity of libraries in this country. Their strength does not lie so much in the importance of individual collections as in the existence of a large number of young, active, and growing institutions which are unitedly advancing to a future that must evidently be tremendous. More than seventy per cent. of our existing libraries have been formed within the last twenty-five years, and contain about 2,500 volumes each. Of the older libraries those which were founded in the last quarter of last century have an average of about 8,000 volumes, those of the following quarter about 11,500 volumes, and those of the third quarter about 5,000 vol-

umes each. It is plain that library work has been remarkably active since 1850. In fact it has been so active as to open a new profession to the educated classes of this country. A large number of highly trained men are engaged in library work, and the discussion of library science is carried on with energy. It is quite probable that a few more years will see the introduction of this study into American colleges, as a preparation for a promising branch of industry. But let us return to our classification, which covers some interesting points.

Educational libraries are of three kinds:

1. Academy and school. . . 1,059, with 1,270,497 vols.
2. College. 312 " 1,949,105 "
3. Asylum and Reformatory. 206 " 223,197 "

District school libraries form a very modern part of the general system, having been first suggested by Governor Clinton of New York in 1827, and introduced by law in 1835. Since then twenty other States have adopted the plan, but some, like Massachusetts, have abandoned it for that of town libraries. The greatest difficulties it labors under are found in country districts, where the funds are applied to other purposes, and the books are recklessly lent out and lost, both evils being due to the fact that few persons can be found who are able and willing to keep the work in good order. In cities the success of these district libraries is much greater. They now report an aggregate of 1,270,497 books, but their statistics are very incomplete. College libraries are among the most important in the country, that of Harvard being the largest we have, after the Congressional library in Washington. As to asylum and reformatory libraries, it would be hard to find circumstances under which books could be more usefully collected than in those institutions, where in 1870 32,901 prisoners were confined, and 116,102 paupers housed habitually or at times. If we consider that only one-fifth of the criminals are in jail, and allow for the natural

increase of criminals and paupers, it will be apparent that the population which may derive benefit from these libraries must now number at least 300,000 persons. To meet their wants there are 206 libraries, with 223,197 volumes. The Pennsylvania State Penitentiary has the largest collection, 9,000 volumes, besides 1,000 school books. The other end of the line is occupied by Florida, which maintains 40 volumes in its Penitentiary.

Some interesting information has been gathered concerning the literary taste of convicts. Story books, magazines, and light literature generally are the favorite choice, but history, biography, and travels are also well patronized. In the Massachusetts State prison Humboldt's "Cosmos" and other philosophical works are called for. In fact the value of prison libraries is vouched for by all authorities, and one says that no convicts, except those really idiotic, leave a prison where there is a library without having gained some advantage. The greatest defects in the system are the lack of books and of light to read them by at night. There are but forty prison libraries, with 61,095 volumes, and in American prisons the cells are not lighted. Lights are placed in the corridors so that only a small number of the inmates have light enough to read by. The Joliet (Ill.) prison is a cheering exception to this gloomy state of things. Each cell has its own catalogue, and lights are allowed up to nine o'clock. Public charities of several kinds have lately suffered from exposures that prevent charitably disposed persons from giving aid which they would otherwise gladly contribute. It may be useful to suggest that money sent to any prison for the benefit of its library could hardly fail to be helpful.

In reformatories, where the effort is to cultivate the moral faculties, the library is an essential part of the system. Forty-nine of them have collections containing 51,466 books. In these institutions we have an indication of what the library, and other

moral forces like it, is worth as an educator. Mr. Sanborn thinks that the proportion "of worthy citizens trained up among the whole 24,000 in preventive and reformatory schools would be as high as seventy-five per cent."

Professional libraries are—

1. Law....	135, with	330,353 volumes
2. Medical	64 "	159,045 "
3. Theological. 86 "		633,309 "
4. Scientific....	75 "	283,902 "

Here we have two surprises. One is that lawyers, with their interminable "reports" falling from nearly every court in the country, and never becoming really obsolete (a peculiarity that hardly any other professional works enjoy), should have so few and such small libraries. The reason probably lies in the assiduity with which each lawyer collects the works needed in his line of practice. The other surprise is that a profession so old and active as that of medicine should be so poorly represented in books. The lawyers have an average of about 2,400 books in their libraries, and the largest collections in the list are that of the Law Institute in New York, 20,000 volumes; Harvard School, 15,000; Social Law Library, Boston, 13,000; and Law Association of San Francisco, 12,500. No other reaches 10,000 volumes, and in fact the above deductions leave the others with about 2,000 volumes each. The medical gentlemen are still worse off. There are in the Surgeon General's office 40,000 volumes; Philadelphia College of Physicians, 18,753; Pennsylvania College of Physicians, 12,500; and New York Hospital, 10,000; leaving an average of 1,300 volumes to each of the other institutions. In these figures we have an indication of the excellent work done by the Army Bureau at Washington. Its 40,000 bound volumes are supplemented by 40,000 pamphlets, making a collection which the profession greatly needed. The theologians seem to have attended as energetically to the collection as to the making of books. In the last division of this

class belong the engineering, agricultural, mining, botanical, military, and naval schools and societies, and they appear to give considerable importance to their libraries. Though they are mostly young institutions, the average number of books is 3,800. In addition to the bound volumes mentioned above, the societies own 218,852 pamphlets and 2,169 manuscripts, the proportion of these two kinds of literary works being naturally large in scientific collections. The largest libraries are those of the Essex Institute, Salem, Mass., 30,655 volumes, 105,408 pamphlets, and "many" MSS.; Philadelphia Academy of Natural Sciences, 30,000 volumes and 35,000 pamphlets; Wagner Free Institution of Science, Philadelphia, 15,000 volumes; Museum of Comparative Zoölogy (Harvard), 13,000; Illinois Industrial University, 10,000; School of Mines, New York, 7,000; Sheffield Scientific School, 5,000.

Historical societies have been much more actively employed in collecting than the table we have given indicates. Since the adoption of the Constitution in 1789 no less than one hundred and sixty societies have been formed, and Dr. Homes of the New York State Library reports their collections to aggregate more than 482,000 volumes and 568,000 pamphlets. The number of MSS. is 88,771, besides 1,361 bound volumes of them. The largest accumulations are:

	<i>Volumes. Pamphlets. MSS.</i>		
Am. Antiq. Soc., Worcester.....	60,497		
New York Historical.....	60,000	12,000	15,000
Wisconsin Historical.....	33,347	31,653	300
Long Island Historical.....	26,000	25,000	
Massachusetts Historical.....	23,000	45,000	1,000 v.
Congregational Library, Boston..	22,895	95,000	550
Connecticut Historical.....	16,000	20,000	
Amer. Philosoph., Philadelphia. .	20,000	15,000	100 v.
German Society, Philadelphia...	16,000		
Pennsylvania Historical.....	16,000	30,000	25,000

It is among these societies that we find the largest average of any class, excepting the Government. Historical libraries contain about 8,400 bound volumes, 7,000 pamphlets, and 1,000 MSS. to each collection. In spite of this the public collections are often surpassed in completeness in special branches by private ones. In this country a public institution can rarely compete successfully with an eager and determined private buyer.

Government libraries include others than those for the use of officials, as the following list shows:

	<i>Libraries.</i>	<i>Volumes.</i>
1. Government	35	695,633
2. State and Territorial....	47	834,219
3. Garrison.....	40	32,745

The official libraries are of several kinds, and as many of them are of prime importance, we may be permitted to specify them more minutely than those of any other class:

	<i>Volumes.</i>
Library of Congress.....	300,000
“ House of Representatives.....	125,000
“ Surgeon General.....	40,000
“ State Department.....	29,000
“ Senate.....	25,000
“ Patent Office.....	23,000
“ War Department.....	13,000
“ Attorney General.....	12,000
“ Treasury	8,440
“ Solicitor of Treasury.....	6,000
“ Post Office.....	6,301
“ Hydrographer's Office.....	7,000
“ Dep't. Agriculture.....	7,000
“ Bureau Statistics.....	6,000
“ Naval Observatory.....	7,000
“ Coast Survey.....	6,000

Many of these are scientific collections and the only large ones of their kind in the country. Their presence, in conjunction with the Smithsonian Institution, has made Washington one of the most active scientific centres in the country. Government publications are sometimes referred to as mere trash, but aside from the remarkably thorough and admirable reports which the several public surveys have produced within a few years, and aside from such notable publications as the reports of Wilkes, Perry, and Kane, the ordinary issues of the Government printing office are anything but undeserving documents. They

are in most cases necessary, useful, and interesting to some one. As special reports, made to cover some field that is narrow, however necessary it may be, and limited to that range by the law which authorizes them, they cannot possibly often be publications of general interest. In fact it is their extremely special character that gives them value. We are sometimes told that a government may be obliged to publish its State papers as matter of record, but it is noticeable that these volumes of documentary history are less inquired for than almost any others. The surveying, engineering, geological, astronomical, and other scientific reports published by the Government are in much greater request, and bring the highest prices in old bookstores. The explanation is, of course, that the scientific reports are useful to a larger class than the others. They appeal to “bread-winners” in several important professions, to students of pure science the world over, and to the already large and increasing body of teachers. For the “Smithsonian Contributions” one hundred and fifty dollars, or more than first cost, is demanded, and the first volume brings twenty dollars, or two and a half times its original price. The Mining Industry volume of the Fortieth Parallel Report brought forty dollars in the shops (whenever it could be found) even while the Engineer Corps was still gingerly distributing its limited edition *gratis*. Many more examples could be adduced, but these are sufficient to show that the Government does bring out works that are sorely wanted. We wish its method of distribution were better. At present the workers in a profession have great difficulty in obtaining the most needed publications of Government, while Congressmen, who are politicians and nothing else, are flooded with books they cannot understand, and only sneer at. The distribution of professional reports through members of Congress, who are not professional men, has never produced any-

thing but dissatisfaction. There is no part of the country where Government publications can be found. Even New York city cannot produce them. This is all wrong. The Government should maintain a collection of all its publications in at least four States. They could be established either in connection with existing libraries or with the army headquarters that are maintained permanently in such places as New York, Chicago, San Francisco, and New Orleans. Such documentary libraries would not be deserted, as some may suppose. The Patent Room of the Boston Public Library was visited last year by 1,765 persons, and a collection of the engineering, scientific, and official publications of the Government in New York would be a centre for professional study, and be visited by thousands yearly. To house the Government publications would require so much space that an ordinary library could hardly be expected to undertake the task without aid. The patent specifications alone of three countries, Great Britain, France, and the United States, with their increase for ten years to come, require an apartment at least thirty feet square.

Proprietary public libraries are the second of the six kinds in size, and would be the first if the "miscellaneous" were counted among them, as they probably should be. Under this head we have grouped all public collections the access to which is in any way limited, as by a yearly payment, by membership in a society, or otherwise. The large total in the table is made up of:

	Number.	Volumes.
1. College Society L.....	299	474,642
2. Mercantile.....	15	543,930
3. Social.....	703	2,052,423
4. Y. M. Christian A.....	87	157,557

In this class we first reach the libraries that deal directly with the "people"; that is, adults of moderate means. These collections have been well styled the "colleges of the poor," and in them all persons who are industrious enough to be able to spare a dollar or two yearly may obtain useful knowl-

edge or innocent amusement. Classes for study of languages, literature, and the arts, and lectures by prominent persons are frequently added to the library system, the whole forming one of the most potent of modern social forces. It seems quite natural that this democratic system of intellectual improvement should owe its origin to the people's philosopher, Poor Richard. Benjamin Franklin founded the first proprietary library in Philadelphia, in 1731, and his plan included not merely coöperation for the sake of pecuniary strength, but also discussion and mutual improvement.

Free public libraries are in character much like the last class, but are maintained usually by State or town grants, or by private gifts. It is probably in connection with these institutions that the dream of some enthusiasts for uniting art museums to the collections of books will be realized.

Only twelve States have a quarter of a million volumes in their public libraries, taken together. They are:

	Libraries.	Volumes.
Massachusetts.....	454	2,208,304
New York.....	615	2,131,377
Pennsylvania.....	364	1,291,665
District of Columbia.....	63	761,133
Ohio.....	237	634,939
Illinois.....	177	463,826
Connecticut.....	121	414,396
Maryland.....	79	382,250
California.....	85	306,978
New Jersey.....	91	280,931
Missouri.....	85	260,102
Virginia.....	65	248,156

This order will, no doubt, rapidly and constantly change. It will be observed that in respect to number of libraries the succession is not the same as for the number of volumes. It can hardly be doubted that such States as Ohio, Illinois, California, and Missouri will advance up the line, while others that now do not possess a quarter of a million volumes, as Indiana, with 137 public libraries, Michigan, with 94, Iowa, with 80, Tennessee, with 74, and Kentucky, with 71, will soon be in the list. As a matter of State "rivalry," such summaries are valueless, even if any rivalry of the kind could be proved. But they do

have some interest and value as social statistics.

More significant, perhaps, are the libraries of ten principal cities, in which one-quarter of all the books in the country within public reach are gathered:

<i>Libraries.</i>	<i>Volumes.</i>	<i>Pop' tion 1870.</i>
New York.....122	878,665	942,292
Boston..... 68	735,900	250,526
Philadelphia....101	706,447	674,022
Baltimore..... 38	237,934	53,180
Cincinnati..... 30	200,890	216,239
St. Louis..... 32	172,875	310,864
Brooklyn..... 21	165,192	396,099
San Francisco.. 23	162,716	149,473
Chicago..... 24	144,680	298,979
Charleston..... 6	26,600	48,956
	500	3,431,899
		3,340,628

In these ten cities, therefore, are collected 7.3 per cent. of the public libraries, 28 per cent. of the books, and 8.66 per cent. of the population in this country. If Washington had been included instead of Charleston, the concentration of books in cities would have been more strikingly marked.

A proper conception of American libraries cannot be obtained without assorting them according to size, which is done in the following table:

	<i>Number.</i>	<i>Volumes.</i>
500-1,000 Volumes...	925	592,510
1,000-2,000 "	762	983,953
2,000-3,000 "	362	816,928
3,000-4,000 "	236	765,010
4,000-5,000 "	156	667,874
5,000-10,000 "	264	1,703,271
10,000-20,000 "	152	2,013,660
20,000-50,000 "	82	2,329,305
50,000-100,000 "	10	640,617
100,000-200,000 "	7	926,727
Over 200,000 "	2	599,869

What is to be the future of American libraries? The most obvious discernible facts are that the popular energies are likely to be given to the support of free town libraries, and that the aggregate of book accumulations will be enormous, though no individual collection now presents the likelihood of rising to extreme proportions; the increase will come by the growth of the numerous small libraries. The mercantile institutions have done and are continuing a good work, but they have prepared the way for a step beyond. Free town libraries are quite

in sympathy with American ideas, and will be supported. They are capable of being made good means of disseminating information. It is fortunate that in this country novels belong to the cheapest publications, most of the good ones appearing in fifty-cent and dollar editions. More solid works are also costlier, so that a popular library can with good reason give its energies to the collection of really good works, leaving the people to supply themselves with the cheaper novels.

Numerous as are the views which have been expressed upon the proper scope and quality of the library of the future, we propose to add one to the list of suggestions. It is that the next founder of a library should confine it entirely to *periodicals*. It is through current literature that every kind of science and every tendency of thought now finds expression. The profoundest discussions in philosophy, discoveries in knowledge, keenest studies of life and character, are now made through the world's weekly and monthly publications. Books are often no more than summaries of what has been printed before in separate magazines. We have in fact heard of one gentleman who broke up the library he had spent years in collecting, and gave his attention to periodicals, because they were the original sources of knowledge in his profession. The libraries which we have styled "professional" are compelled to spend large sums on these issues, which were once styled "ephemeral," but are now found to be of lasting value.

Under these circumstances, why not have a library of this periodical literature? Just as some men refuse to read translations, learning a new language if a book they need is printed in a tongue unknown to them, so let us reject summaries and accumulate original materials. As to the cost of such a library, the five thousand important periodicals which are said to be published will require probably \$30,000 a year for their purchase, and if as much more is added for rent,

binding, salaries, etc., we have an income required which demands a capital of more than a million dollars, to say nothing of half a million for back numbers !

Some readers may be curious to know what chance there is of making a collection that shall be fairly representative of the world's literature.

We can safely answer, *none*. Herr Hottinger, who has issued the prospectus of a universal catalogue of all books published, thinks there are about three million titles, and his critics say this estimate is too low. Twenty-five thousand new works are said to be added each year to this number. Now the largest number of *volumes* (and therefore a less number of titles) added to libraries in this country yearly, is: Boston Public Library, 18,000; Philadelphia Mercantile, 17,004; Congressional, 15,400; Chicago Public, 11,331; Cincinnati Public, 11,398; New York Mercantile, 8,000; and Harvard, 7,000. The numbers reported by the Mercantile and public libraries are of little value, since these institutions often buy a dozen or a score copies of a popular work. It is therefore evident that no library in this country is even attempting to keep up with the current issue of books.

It has been found impossible to estimate, with any degree of accuracy, the amount of money spent on new books by the libraries, as more than half of them fail to make any report on this point. Permanent funds, amounting to \$6,105,581, are held by 358 libraries, and 1,364 have none; 1,960 make no report. The endowments are divided very unevenly among the classes, as this table shows:

<i>Number Reporting.</i>	<i>Amount.</i>
Educational..... 54	\$775,801
Professional..... 54	695,610
Historical..... 26	742,572
Government.....none	
Proprietary Public..... 124	1,079,359
Free Public..... 93	2,804,964
Miscellaneous..... 7	7,275

This, however, does not show what is spent yearly in buying books, an item which only one in about twenty-three of the libraries report. The amount is \$562,407, and at \$1.25 per volume, which is Mr. Winsor's estimate of the average cost of books, the yearly acquisitions by purchase are limited to about 450,000 volumes.

Figures such as we have presented are really no guide to the worth of an individual library, or of a library system, to the people. That can be learned only by the comparison of experiences by the men who have charge of the books and their distribution, but the elements for such an analysis are wanting. The yearly use of books in 742 libraries in 1875 was 8,879,869 volumes, or from two to two and a half times the number of volumes on the shelves of the reporting libraries. Great differences exist in this respect. Few libraries are so eagerly sought as the military post library on Angel Island, California, which distributed its 772 books so often that its yearly circulation was 4,500 ! The Chicago Public Library, with 48,100 volumes, circulated 403,356; Boston Athenæum, with 105,000 volumes, circulated 33,000; Boston Public Library, with 299,869 volumes, circulated 758,493.

These statistics are sufficient. It is probable that the libraries of the country, costing say \$16,000,000 for books, and spending more than \$1,400,000 yearly, afford to the people the use of from twenty-four to thirty million volumes every year. It cannot be doubted that they form a very important factor in our social and national economy.

More than a thousand librarians are engaged in the conduct of the public libraries, many of them men of great ability and culture. There can be no doubt that their study of this important problem will result in the establishing of an intelligent and harmonious system of supplying a nation with the reading matter it requires.

JOHN A. CHURCH.

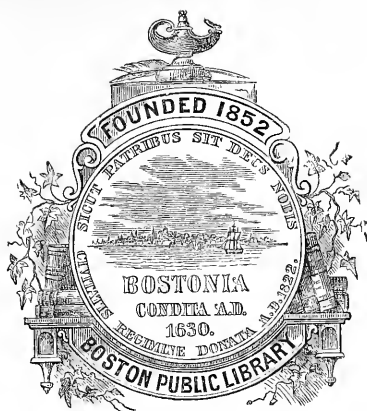
ACCESSION No.....

ADDED.....187.....

CATALOGUED BY.....

REVISED BY.....

MEMORANDA.



PAMPHLETS.

Libraries, old and new.

Hours at home. N. Y. Jan. 1867

ACCESSION No.

ADDED 187.....

CATALOGUED BY.....

REVISED BY.....

MEMORANDA.

care; and thus it is that, to one who is assiduously and conscientiously faithful in the discharge of duty, amusement comes with relaxation almost as a matter of course; comes unbought, unsolicited, at no extravagant cost, and in that simple form in which it is at once most welcome and most satisfying. The idle man must ply his ingenuity to devise new pleasures for his cloyed appetite. To him amusement is a study, a pursuit, and a task. But he who has borne the heat and burden of the day, who has never found time hang heavy on his hands, breathes refreshment as he lays down pen or spade,

and in passing from the desk or field to his quiet home feels that he has only first to drop into his sheltered nook, and the fragrance of repose and social leisure breathes through his humble dwelling, and makes all the splendor of gilded saloons and all the luxury of opulent feasts simply contemptible. If toil-bought hunger is the specific that can make common food inviting, a faithful discharge of daily and religious duties is the best specific for amusement. It will abate the morbid passion of the soul for high-spiced pleasures, and make it more than content to forego all their luring sweets.

AZRAEL, THE ANGEL OF DEATH.

On a low bed within a narrow room
 She lies, and she has lain through weary years;
 Her pale lips, parted, smile; there are no tears
 Within the languid eyes, her life's young bloom
 Has faded from her; yet she does not mourn—
 When summer quits the year with sweetest flowers
 She lets him weep, but leaves him not forlorn;
 For, setting fire to all her golden stores,
 She, from her pyre, excelling glory pours
 Through autumn's coming to its latest hours.
 Is it the memory of joy, a light
 From years long set that makes those features bright?
 Patient, frail sufferer, is remembrance sweet?
 "O memory! hide, my past has tearful eyes;
 Pain is my pillow, want most near me lies:
 But I have heard the tread of unseen feet,
 In some deep night, when all the world is still:
 He will come in, come in through that low door,
 Fearful and beautiful, and crowned and pale,
 Azrael, God's angel. He shall stand before
 Me, face to face, and say, 'Thou'rt mine, thou'rt mine!'
 My sleeping nurse will start at the new sound
 Of my rejoicing. See what I have found.
 Thine for one moment, messenger divine,
 Azrael, archangel, and that sudden thrill
 Of triumph shall my troubled life fulfill."

LIBRARIES, OLD AND NEW.

Nor many years since we entered the library of Dr. Hildreth, the learned antiquary and historian of Ohio. There were some valuable modern works in the room, a few rare pictures and medals, a good collection of Indian relics, and some curiosities found in the Mississippi Valley, which must have been the handiwork of a race that dwelt there long before the age of the Indian tribes.

The doctor sat at his table, absorbed in a pile of soiled, worn, coarse-looking account-books, that might have belonged to the said ancient people, were we not sure of the chronology of paper and cheap book-binding. They were, however, the account-books of some worthy publican who kept a log tavern on the banks of the Ohio, in those days when Louis Philippe was an exile from France, and stopped to buy bread of a baker whose oven was near the little hostelry.

"Come here," said the old gentleman, "and see how an old account-book may aid the historian. If it were not for the Goths and Vandals of modern times, I mean the so-called tidy housekeepers, who hold an annual *auto-da-fé* of old books and papers, and the Bedouins of the kitchen, who light the fire with Sir Isaac Newton's calculations or Audubon's notes, history would be more truthful and the labor of writing it less laborious. Our business men have banks of deposit, discount, and circulation; why can not we have savings libraries where tracts, pamphlets, catalogues, sermons, speeches, etc., could be preserved in fire-proof apartments? Their value increases with their age. How highly should we prize the old Jewish library which was kept in the temple in Solomon's day, or the still older library of Memphis. What a treat for us moderns to peep into the great Ethiopian collection of manuscripts, at one time the largest in the world!"

"Library in the temple!" I said to myself. "I wonder what books they had, and surely an Ethiopian library is a

myth!" But the remarks of the old gentleman interested me, and led me in my later wanderings to visit libraries and search for their hidden treasures. There is much enjoyment in it, and perhaps a few of the facts thus gleaned may interest the reader and lead him to more valuable researches.

It is only within a very short time that I have learned what books were in the first temple, and I came across the catalogue in this way: Looking for some books of reference in the Astor Library one day, the librarian kindly directed my attention to a quaint little volume published in England, MDCCLXXXIX, in which the writer gives a catalogue of the Temple Library, namely:

Book of Right, to which reference is made—Joshua 10.

Chronicles of Media and Persia.

Book of Animals.

" " Plants.

" " Precious Metals.

" " Remedies.

Book upon Magic and Invoking Spirits, which, tradition says, was written by Solomon. I wonder that some of the modern mediums have not been informed of this book by the spirit of the sapient monarch who, it is claimed, condescends to rap out a communication.

The same quaint writer tells us that the Ethiopian library was, at one time, the largest in the world. When we recall the antiquity of the kingdom, and its superiority to the surrounding nations long before the Jews conquered Jerusalem, we have little reason to doubt that they had a collection of all the ancient manuscripts on astrology and religion.

The oldest library of which we have any distinct account is that of Memphis, which had over the entrance the figure of a Judge, with the image of Truth suspended from his neck, and overhead the inscription, "Healing of the Soul."

The Chinese libraries are very ancient, and the art of printing on blocks of wood

was known to them long before its invention in Europe.

Our readers are familiar with the history of the Alexandrian Library, and the sad story of its destruction by that old Mohammedan bigot, Omar. There are some critics who assert that he was not so bad as he is represented, nor the fire quite as destructive.

Among the Greeks the libraries of Athens were most valuable, and her sons, on their conquest by the Romans, gave their literary treasures to the hands, as reluctantly as they yielded their hallowed soil to the feet of the conqueror.

The first library in Rome was established B.C. 167. Cæsar did not live to complete his plan for a great free library in the city. It was left to Augustus, who added that to his other munificent works for Rome.

The largest library at the present time is the Imperial Library at Paris. It was commenced by King John about the year 800, with twenty volumes. When Louis XIV. ascended the throne, there were sixteen thousand volumes; but when he died, in 1715, there were more than seventy thousand. This library numbers to-day one million four hundred thousand volumes, the catalogue filling twenty-four quarto volumes. When we remember that this library is entitled to one copy of every book published in the empire, our surprise at its extent will cease. Every country in the world, where manuscripts have been written or books printed, has been laid under contribution to increase the literary treasures of this immense storehouse.

This library has four compartments: 1. Printed works, maps, and geographical collections. 2. Manuscripts, genealogies, autographs, etc. 3. Medals and antique gems. 4. Engravings. There are three hundred thousand pamphlets. There is a reading-room connected with the library, where no conversation is allowed, the readers writing on slips of paper the names of books which they wish. In the room for engravings there are the works of engravers for some centuries back; some of these are very curious, showing

a great ignorance of perspective. There are in this library ninety thousand portraits.

This great building is open to the public, excepting on holidays and Sundays. The virtuoso, the poor student, the fashionable lady, and the poor girl who has no beautiful things in her own home to gratify her taste, may all meet here. Here come kings by right of earthly titles, and kings whose more precious inheritance is the God-given crown of genius. In the same room can be seen a manuscript of Galileo, that of Newton's *Principia*, the calculations of La Place, and the discoveries of Herschel. Here, too, is a book printed by Caxton in 1490, and the *Chronicles of St. Denis* in 1493.

Some of the ancient mss. are so richly bound as to excite the admiration of all visitors. There is the *Tours ms.*, large quarto size, with gold covers. On one side is a representation of the Crucifixion, on the other of the Resurrection. The *Book of Hours*, made for Charles the Bald before 869, has for covers two tablets of ivory, finely sculptured, with a border of precious stones set in little plates of silver.

There are more than thirty public libraries in Paris, most of them open to the public. There are the Libraries of Commerce, Music, Mining, Law, and Medicine, all free to those who wish to enter.

In the City Library there is a room for the special accommodation of Americans, in which there are six thousand volumes of official American publications.

An English writer of the fifteenth century laments the lack of libraries in England, and calls France the paradise of literary men under the reign of Louis XIV., but fears that his successor will not maintain the reputation of this liberal monarch. But time proved that there was more danger in this respect from the advocates of liberty, equality, and fraternity, than from the most imbecile of the French kings. At one time the National Assembly decreed that every missal, volume, etc., that bore a dedication to kings or the royal insignia should be destroyed or defaced; this, of course, included the

most precious and ornamental treasures of the royal library. A few republicans, who were not vandals, risked their own lives to prevent the execution of this decree; and among the number Ameilhon, blessed be his name! was so prompt and vigilant as to save in all eight hundred thousand volumes, which, but for him, would have been given to the flames or mutilated. At one time it was ordered that the books of a large library should be removed in three hours; but he obtained an alteration of the order to three days, and then kept men with wagons employed night and day till the time expired. His name stands in pleasant contrast to that of the renegade old monk Jean Aymount, who robbed the Imperial Library of some of its most valuable manuscripts, and mutilated others. He cut thirty-five pages from a manuscript of the Pauline Epistles, which was of great antiquity, and written on vellum in gold letters; while from the Bible of Charles the Bald, a rare and curious ms., he cut forty leaves. It is a singular fact that, twenty-two years afterward, thirty-four of the leaves of the Epistles came into the hands of an English gentleman, who returned them to the library; but the remaining leaf, and thirty-nine of the Bible, have never been found.

There are in the libraries of Paris many rare and curious relics aside from books and manuscripts. All readers of history will remember Chevalier Bayard, who lived in the reign of Louis XII., the knight without fear and without reproach; and such will be interested in a piece of tapestry that once adorned his castle at Grenoble, but now hangs in the Imperial Library in Paris. This is valuable for its antiquity, but is not as beautiful as a more modern piece of Gobelin tapestry which hangs in the Library of St. Genevieve. This library is one of the few that are lighted with gas, and open for evening visitors; and the tapestry is most exquisite in design, representing "Study surprised by Night."

There are other rare old libraries on the Continent, none more so than the one at Munich, where the progress of book-mak-

ing may be traced to the earliest ages; for there are six thousand books with dates previous to 1500. Here, also, is a manuscript musical library; that rich old mediæval music, a taste for which is now being cultivated in our own city.

But the great storehouse of ancient books and manuscripts, the old pile in which reposes undisturbed the dust of many centuries, is the Vatican at Rome. I would like the lease of a hundred years of hale, vigorous life, with free entrance daily to these ancient halls, that I might give sunlight and air to the old manuscripts and pictures, which are rendered almost useless now by the arbitrary restrictions made in the time of Clement XIII., and which are still in force.

There are in the palace itself, it is said, over ten thousand rooms; the library-rooms are among the most lofty and spacious, and are adorned with pictures by the old masters, rare vases and statues, and the galleries containing the bookcases are beautifully frescoed; but the stranger can form no correct idea of the size of the library, as the cases are all closed. Among the few antiquities which the traveler is permitted to see is the Greek Bible of the sixth century, from which all other translations have been made; the gospels of Luke and John, copied in the tenth century and bound in ivory; and the ancient Greek Bible, which is so heavy that it takes two men to lift it, and for which the Venetian Jews offered its weight in gold. It is well that it is locked up in the almost impenetrable Vatican rather than on exhibition in Wall street.

The lover of Dante will linger over a copy of the *Divina Commedia* copied by Boccaccio and sent by him to Petrarch, thus uniting these three illustrious names. Far less lovingly will the Protestant of this century look upon Henry the VIIIth's Treatise against Luther, which gave him the name of Defender of the Faith; and many a heart is sad for a moment as it sees, near this treatise, seventeen original love-letters, written by this same Blue Beard to the beautiful Anne Boleyn.

The collection of illuminated missals and manuscripts in the Vatican is immense,

but there are no printed catalogues, and the written ones are very difficult of access; then the library itself is closed on holidays, and these are so numerous in Rome that a stranger is often wearied in his attempts to visit it. The history of this library goes back, tradition says, to the time of Constantine the Great, but Sixtus V. prepared the great saloon of the library, and adorned the exterior of the edifice in the latter part of the sixteenth century.

While in Italy we must linger for a moment among the quaintest old manuscripts, collected by Cosmo de Medici in Florence; nor can we pass unheeded that "ghost upon the sands of the sea, so quiet, so bereft of all but her loveliness; that city whose history is barred with brightness and shade, like the far-away edge of her own ocean, where the surf and sand-bank are mingled with the sky." Florence was once rich in her noble library of rare old manuscripts, first collected by Petrarch; but the stranger who now enters its lofty galleries finds many of its alcoves made vacant by the despoiling hand of the Austrian, who has enriched Vienna at the expense of Florence.

Poor Poland has suffered in the same way, for she once possessed one of the richest collections of manuscripts to be found outside of the Vatican; but the czar, when he sent her nobles to Siberia, carried the gathered treasures of ages to his own capital.

Turning from the continent to England, we find the Library of the London British Museum, containing six hundred and fifteen thousand volumes and forty thousand manuscripts. In this library the color of the binding indicates the subject, thus: history, red; theology, blue; poetry, yellow; natural history, green, etc. There are a number of libraries in the British Museum which have been presented at different times. The King's Library is a collection made by the kings of England from the time of Henry VII., and was presented to the museum by George II. in 1757. The Grenville Library was presented by Lord Grenville in these words: "A great part of my library has been purchased from the profits of a sinecure office,

given me by the people, and I feel it to be a debt and duty that I should acknowledge this obligation by giving the library so acquired to the British Museum for the use of the public."

In this museum the stranger feels almost bewildered by the abundance of its literary treasures. Among the antiquities are two cases of block books, or the books which preceded the age of printing; they are simply specimens of nice wood-engravings, colored by hand. The earliest date—there are many older without dates—is the impression of a block, representing the seven ages of man, with a wheel of fortune in the centre, engraved 1460. There is another, much older, representing Christ before Herod, guarded by soldiers. This was found pasted inside a cover of a manuscript *Vitæ Patrum*, attributed to St. Jerome, and can not be later than the middle of the fifth century. Among the specimens of early printing is the first complete printed book known—a copy of the Mayence Bible, supposed to have been printed by Guttenberg and Faust at Mentz in 1455.

The first book printed in England with woodcuts was *A Book of Chess Moralized*, 1480; but *The Game and Play of Chess* was printed six years before. This is found in Case 8, British Museum Library. There are two books, lying side by side, very beautiful in their workmanship, but bearing dates three hundred and thirty-eight years apart; the first, 1517, nearly fifty years before the first printed book, is an allegorical poem on the marriage of Maximilian I. of Germany, with Maria of Burgundy. It is printed from movable types, while the ornaments, initials, and flourishes are engraved on wood or lead, and nicely adjusted in the text. Its companion is a splendid specimen of modern printing, and gained the gold medal at the Paris exhibition in 1855. It cost \$20,000.

Among other curiosities in this library is a copy of the letter which Columbus wrote on the discovery of the West-Indies in 1794; and here also is all that remains of that glorious old document—England's pride—the *Magna Charta* of King John,

dated at Runnymede, June 15, 1215. It has been much injured by fire, but a fragment of the great seal still remains.

Almost all the large cities of Europe have large free libraries; but though rich in ancient manuscripts and rare books; though some, like the Imperial in Paris, are searching Asia for the records of the past, and collecting even the Buddhist literature in their alcoves—not one, nor perhaps all the old royal libraries united, are doing as much to elevate the common people as the Free Library of Manchester, in England. This was opened in 1852, and has issued for five years, to readers *in* the building and borrowers *out*, eight hundred and sixty-four thousand one hundred and four volumes, and the total value of all lost amounts only to twenty-one shillings! The working people show their appreciation of this library by the constant use they make of it, and its influence is already seen in the increased industry, intelligence, and sobriety of that class.

We have in the United States one free library, which equals, if it does not surpass, that of Manchester. I refer to the Boston Free Library, established in 1852 by the liberality of two or three wealthy citizens, whose names will be remembered with gratitude as long as old "Trimountain" stands on her bleak hills by the sea. The building is a beautiful specimen of architecture; it is kept well warmed, ventilated, and lighted, and open to all who choose to enter; and the books are lent, without charge, to all residents of Boston who choose to apply. There is a general reading-room, one also appropriated to ladies, and a reference as well as a circulating library. It contains about sixty thousand volumes.

There is a charming old library in Boston, which, though not free, always extends a kind welcome to a stranger; and it has such a cosy, old-time air—a little redolent of Boston conservatism, to be sure—that he likes to linger, and if he wants a book upon almost any subject, (and what topic is there which Bostonians do not discuss?) the librarian, the best encyclopedia there, will be sure to direct him how to find it.

Last, not least, we come to our own city, where our noble Astor bears witness to the wealth and liberality of one family. It was commenced in 1849, and has now one hundred thousand volumes. But it is not a circulating library, nor do we find the masses going there freely to enjoy its treasures. It is a delightful place for the student, the literary gourmand, the lady of leisure who has a literary taste; but we must turn to the Cooper Institute to find the men whose hands are hard with toil, the tired apprentice, the street-boy, the weary female teacher, the poor foreigner who sits down so eagerly to the foreign papers. We have watched all these classes there, and we have envied the donor the happiness which he must feel when he sees the good which his hands have done. The periodicals are often so soiled that more fastidious readers go elsewhere. Let them do so, especially on Saturday afternoon, when those for whom the institute was intended, forget the toils of the week in the reading freely furnished to them.

The Mercantile of this city was founded in 1820, and has nearly sixty thousand volumes. It is not a free library, but the privileges are great, and the terms moderate to clerks and to ladies, who are also admitted to the reading-rooms.

There is another class of libraries in the United States which is doing great good in a silent way—that of the Young Men's Christian Associations. There is a large number of these societies in the United States, and most of them have, or are preparing to have, a library and free reading-room connected with it. The largest library now among them is that of the Brooklyn Association, valued at ten thousand dollars, and I believe this has the largest number of members. They have a large, commodious room, where any one who chooses can read the books, periodicals, and newspapers provided, while an annual fee of two dollars admits to all the privileges of membership. We hope to see these societies greatly multiplied.

Why can not we also have in New-York a circulating library, similar to Mudie's in London, where such books as

you wish may be ordered and brought to your own door for a trifling sum, and exchanged also, so that the housekeeper and invalid may be as easily supplied with books as with groceries?

But we need in our great and rapidly growing city a free lending and reference library like the one in Manchester, England, open every day and evening—holi-

days not excepted. There are thousands of clerks, male and female, who have no quiet, pleasant homes, but are crowded into small, ill-ventilated, cheerless bedrooms, from which they are glad to escape, finding refuge often in some questionable place of amusement, or in the society of those whose ways lead down to the gates of death.

RESEARCHES OF A FOGY.

I AM one of those men who are not fast enough for the present age. Had I lived two hundred years ago, I should perhaps have acquitted myself creditably; but now I lag behind. The consequence is, that, giving up all hope of keeping pace with the times, I busy myself in speculations on the past. But, as no man likes to feel that he is absolutely useless, I try to persuade myself that there is work for me, in rubbing up here and there the rusty image of antiquity, and in putting on record a few of those fleeting traditions which the passage mayhap of another generation would have carried completely beyond this world.

It is not so much my purpose or desire to deal in solid antiquarian lore as to pick up and pack away some of those "unconsidered trifles" which the serious annalist would hold beneath his notice; and to disport myself occasionally, it may be, in the twilight region betwixt fancy and fact, where, if the genuine gold of truth is not to be found, the pinchbeck mockery may pass muster in its place.

That I am not utterly out of keeping with my time and have no prejudices is perhaps made evident in the fact that I am content to give myself the somewhat slangy title of "Fogy," which appears to hit my case. Thus much premised, I produce the first item of my budget.

I.

IN THE DAYS OF SALMAGUNDI.

It is characteristic of this age, and more especially of this country, that events which occurred comparatively but a few

years ago already begin to assume the cast of age. So brief, too, has been our history, and the urgency of practical life heretofore so strong, that there has been little time or opportunity for the growth of those local, personal, or literary associations which give interest to the recollection of older communities. The Club of Shakespeare and the Ivy Club have no counterpart with us. This is even more the case with edifices here. Scarce does a building begin to nurse the first moss of antiquity, and invite old memories to shelter themselves beneath its roof, than some surge of speculation sweeps it away suddenly, or the steadily advancing tide of business demand overwhelms it as a matter of course. This is the more to be regretted inasmuch as persons can make and leave behind them some record of their inner lives, through which the fashion of their minds may be discerned, and by which human sympathies can yet cling to them; but our associations with buildings are cat-like, and need to linger about the identical galleries and chimney-corners of the house.

This train of thought has been suggested by a rumor which has lately come to my ears, to the effect that COCKLOFT HALL has been or is about to be torn down. And what is or was COCKLOFT HALL? It is an illustration of what I have just been writing. It was the resort, just sixty years ago, of a pleasant set of good fellows—of the quill, some of them—and the city of Newark has devoured or will devour it. And it is of this old house that I am induced by the paucity of such matter in our literary history to furnish an account, de

rived from family sources, which, if not much to speak of, is at least not brought into comparison with greater things.

I should briefly premise that, at the time of which I am about to treat, the first series of *SALMAGUNDI* was in the full flush of success, and that Washington Irving and James K. Paulding, the authors, and Henry Brevoort, Jr., their sworn ally, were the most assiduous visitors of this place, the property of their common friend, Gouverneur Kemble. Irving and Paulding not only frequented the house themselves, but peopled it with a brood of imaginary gentlefolk and their dependents. Others of the Irving family, and friends of all the parties named, assisted occasionally in the frolics that went on there; and all, or almost all, had nicknames, as will incidentally appear. Gouverneur Kemble, for example, who came into possession about the year 1806, in recognition of his proprietorship was fitted with the title of "Patroon," doubtless in ridicule of the limited extent of his grounds, for estates in New-York in those days often went by the square mile.

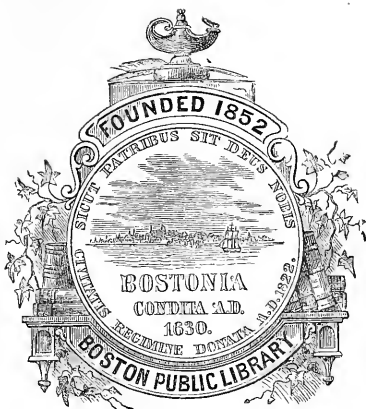
And now for *COCKLOFT HALL* itself. This was a country-house a mile or so from the Newark in New-Jersey of that day, on the Belleville road. It was surrounded by a small domain of twenty-two acres, and stood nearly east and west, the main front being on the Passaic river, then and there a broad and sparkling stream. A honeysuckled porch with permanent seats, one on each side of a door, met the view from the road, between which and the house was the garden. The grand entrance, gained by a winding carriage-road, was opposite. The ground had a general slope toward the water, the porch on one side being raised two steps from the earth, while on the other you reached the platform to the main door by a flight of six or seven. These were of stone, guarded by an iron railing, and on each side grew a Catalpa-tree, then somewhat of a rarity. A lawn, studded with apple-trees, extended to the river.

The house was a plain square, with hipped roof, and wings to the first floor. When "the lads" first began to haunt the

place, it was occupied by Auntie, who had a life-estate in the property, and her major-domo and housekeeper, Daddy and Mammy Jacobs. 'Auntie' had been a Miss J., of Belleville, and her wedding must have been a ceremonious affair; for the old black cook of the establishment on describing the occasion, used, as reported to me, to expatiate on "her silks and her satins—de fadders on her head—and nine tall buckleys, miss, stringin' on behind!" The old lady was iron in her notions of childish obedience and respect to age, and her favorite threat in case of disobedience or neglect of orders was: "Child! child! I'll shake you to a mummy."

The plan of the house, as described to me, was as queer as the supposed inhabitants, the Cocklofts, are made to appear, and there were some unaccountable "poke-holes" here and there. The main outer door opened directly into a large hall, or, as it was sometimes called, "The Chinese Saloon." This hall, instead of extending lengthwise of the house, as is usual, ran crosswise, and occupied that whole front in the main body of the house, opening at each end into the wings, which formed, one the dining, the other the drawing-room. In each of these apartments the further end was of a hexagonal shape. The hall itself had its two inner corners cut off at an angle—one to accommodate a contracted staircase which led from a corner of the dining-room to a kitchen below, the other for the sake of symmetry. In accordance with the spirit of oddity which pervaded the entire establishment, it was papered with all the trades of China, in active operation, and other illustrations of life in the Celestial Empire, such as an unlucky pigtail capsizing a whole tray of crockery. A passage continued on from about the middle of this hall to the back door, (on the main road) and gave entrance on the sides to Auntie's room and that of Daddy and Mammy Jacobs.

The stairway to the second story debouched from the large hall, was ingeniously contrived so as to cut up a room on each floor, and landed on the upper level at the side of a narrow hall which ran

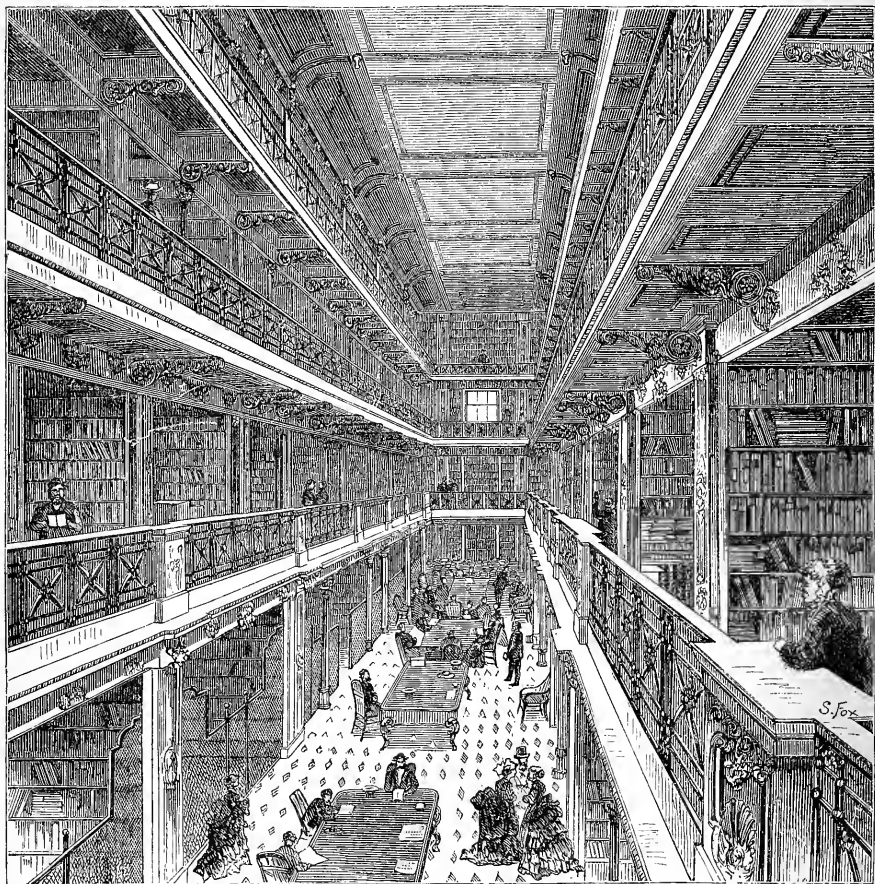


PAMPHLETS.
Library of Congress.

Harper, Dec. 1872



THE LIBRARY OF CONGRESS.



INTERIOR OF THE CONGRESSIONAL LIBRARY.

“A GOOD library is a statesman’s workshop,” said John Randolph of Roanoke, and every civilized government which has existed since books were first written upon papyrus has had its national collection, illustrating its taste, its intelligence, and its liberality. In the infancy of our republic its Congressmen profited in turn by the New York Society Library, then located in the City Hall (where the Treasury building now stands), in which they held their sessions, and by the Philadelphia Library, which had been established at the instance of Benjamin Franklin. And in 1791 the Philadelphians, then anxious to have their city made the permanent metropolis of the Federal Union, formally tendered to the President and to Congress the free use of the books in their library, for which act of courtesy President Washington, through his secretary, Tobias Lear, returned thanks.

When, in 1800, Congress made final provision for the removal and accommodation of the government of the United States at Conococheague (as the site of the District of Columbia had been called by the Indians), or Roaring Brook, the more intelligent members took care to provide for the commencement of a library. On the motion of Samuel Livermore, a graduate of Princeton College, then a Senator from New Hampshire, \$5000 were appropriated for the purchase of books and for fitting up a suitable apartment in the new Capitol as a library, by the Secretary of the Senate and the Clerk of the House, under the direction of a joint committee of both Houses. The chairman of this joint committee, and the only member thereof who has left behind him any trace of a fondness for or an acquaintance with books, was Senator Dexter, of Massachusetts, a graduate of Harvard College, and a lawyer

of some eminence. Under his direction the nucleus of the Library of Congress was ordered from London by Samuel A. Otis, who was for twenty-five years the honored Secretary of the Senate. The books reached this country packed in trunks, and were forwarded to the new metropolis, where they were assigned a room in the "Palace in the Wilderness," as the unfinished Capitol was then derisively styled by those who preferred New York or Philadelphia as the seat of government.

Mr. Otis, with his usual promptitude, presented a report of his action on the first day of the next session, December 7, 1801, showing that \$2200 of the \$5000 appropriated had been expended; and it was referred to a new joint committee. The chairman was Senator Nicolas, of Virginia, who had served honorably in the war of the Revolution; and associated with him were Senator Tracey, of Connecticut, a graduate of Yale College; Representative James A. Bayard, of Delaware, who had graduated at Princeton College and studied law at Philadelphia; Representative Joseph Hopper Nicholson, of Maryland, a lawyer of some distinction; and Representative John Randolph, of Virginia, who was the erratic owner of a choice and well-used library at his estate on the Roanoke River. This well-qualified committee doubtless felt the want of books to aid them in their legislative duties, as they reported to each House the next week. The report, which had been prepared by Mr. Randolph, was accompanied by a series of resolutions providing somewhat in detail for the establishment of a library, under the charge of the Secretary of the Senate and the Clerk of the House of Representatives, who were to attend, in person or by deputy, each week-day during the session from 11 A.M. until 3 P.M. An annual appropriation was also recommended.

This report gave rise to considerable debate in both Houses of Congress, the Democrats opposing any considerable appropriation for what would evidently become a national library, while the Federalists were more generously disposed; and one of them, the Rev. John Bacon, a Representative from Massachusetts, actually advocated an annual appropriation of \$10,000. So powerful was the opposition that it was found necessary to invoke the aid of President Jefferson, and through his influence the Democrats were induced to support a bill, drawn up by John Randolph, which placed the library under the charge of a joint committee of Congress, but provided that the librarian should be appointed by the President of the United States solely. This act of Congress was approved by President Jefferson on the 26th of January, 1802, and three days afterward he appointed as librarian his friend John Beckley, a Virginian, the Clerk of the House of

Representatives. John McDonald, a Philadelphian, was an unsuccessful applicant for the position; and the Federalists in Congress were much disappointed, although not surprised, that Mr. Otis had been ignored. The pay of the librarian, as fixed by the act, was "a sum not to exceed \$2 per diem for every day of necessary attendance."

The first catalogue of the Library of Congress was promptly issued by the newly appointed librarian in April, 1802, from the press of William Duane. It embraced the titles of 212 folios, 164 quartos, 581 octavos, 7 duodecimos, and 9 maps, which then constituted the only library of reference at the national metropolis. This was slowly increased in size by annual purchases made with the small available portion of the contingent funds of the two Houses of Congress, until 1806, when an urgent appeal for a larger appropriation was made by Senator Samuel Latham Mitchell, an accomplished physician of New York city. "Every member," said he, in the conclusion of a report which he made to the Senate, "knows that the inquiries of standing and select committees can not here be aided by large public libraries, as in New York, Baltimore, and Philadelphia. Nor has it hitherto appeared that so much benefit is to be derived from private collections at the present seat of government as in those large cities. Every week of the session causes additional regret that the volumes of literature and science within the reach of the national legislature are not more rich and ample. The want of geographical illustrations is truly distressing, and the deficiency of historical and political works is scarcely less severely felt. There is, however, no danger of realizing the story of a *parliamentum indoctum* in this country, especially if steps be seasonably taken to furnish the library with such materials as will enable statesmen to be correct in their investigations, and, by a becoming display of erudition and research, give a higher dignity and a brighter lustre to truth." The result of this appeal was the appropriation of \$1000 annually for five years for the increase of the Library of Congress.

When Mr. Patrick Magruder, of Virginia, was elected Clerk of the House of Representatives in 1807, as the successor of Mr. Beckley, President Jefferson commissioned him also as Librarian of Congress. The location of the library in the Capitol was changed several times—once because the books were damaged by a leaky roof; and but few new books could be purchased with the annual appropriation of \$1000, which was continued in 1811 for five years more. In the absence of places of fashionable resort found in larger cities, the Library of Congress was a favorite place of rendezvous, where students, politicians, diplomats, claimants, and correspondents met on friendly terms; while



"I AM COMPLETELY FLOORED!"

the ladies, with their accustomed good taste, made it the head-quarters of fashionable society.

Chief Justice Marshall acknowledged in 1812, with many thanks, the privilege of taking out books from the library, which Congress had then granted to the justices of the Supreme Court, and which he prized very highly. He liked to wait upon himself, rather than to be served by the librarian; and one day, in taking a law-book from the upper shelf of an alcove, he pulled down a dozen ponderous tomes, one of which struck him on the forehead with such force that he fell prostrate. An assistant librarian, who hastened to the old gentleman's assistance, found him slightly stunned by the fall; but he soon recovered, and declined to be aided to his feet, saying, with a merry twinkle in his eye, "I've laid down the law out of the books many a time in my long life, but this is the first time they have laid me down. I am completely floored!" And he remained seated upon the floor, surrounded by the books which he had pulled down, until he had found what he sought, and "made a note thereof."

When the British army entered the metropolis of the United States in triumph, after the skirmish known as the "Bladensburg Races," on the 24th of August, 1814, they first occupied the Capitol, the two wings of which only were finished, and connected by a wooden passage-way erected where the rotunda now stands. The lead-

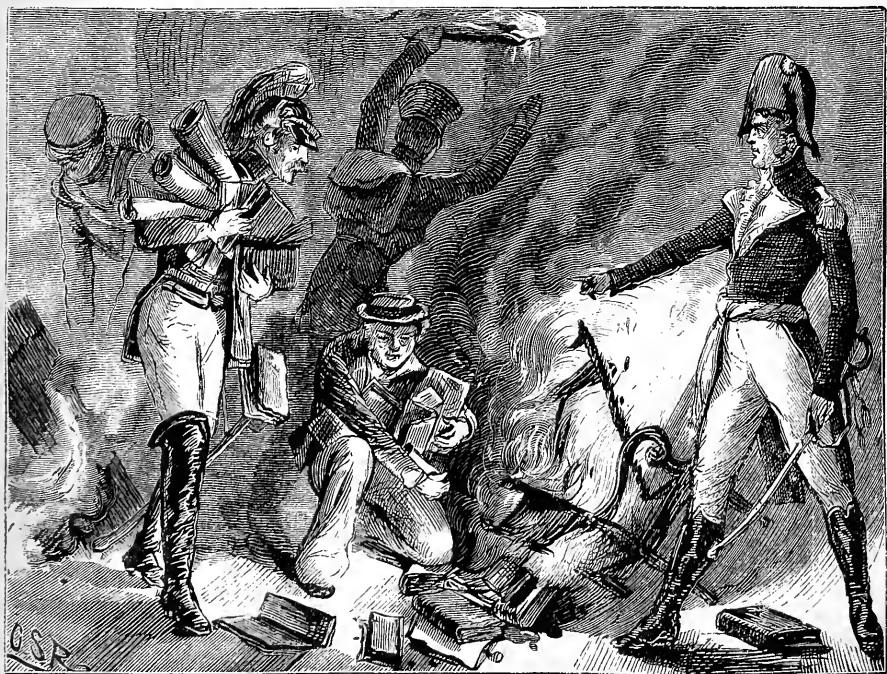
ing officers entered the House of Representatives, where Admiral Cockburn of the Royal Navy (who was co-operating with General Ross), seating himself in the Speaker's chair, called the assemblage to order. "Gentlemen," shouted he, "the question is, Shall this harbor of Yankee democracy be burned? All in favor of burning it will say Aye!" There was a general affirmative response. And when he added, "Those opposed will say Nay," silence reigned for a moment. "Light up!" cried the bold Briton; and the order was soon repeated in all parts of the building, while soldiers and sailors vied with each other in collecting combustible materials for their incendiary fires. The books on the shelves of the Library of Congress were used as kindling for the north wing; and the much-admired full-length portraits of Louis XVI. and his queen, Marie Antoinette, which had been presented by that unfortunate monarch to Congress, were torn from their frames and trampled under foot. Patrick Magruder, then Clerk of the House of Representatives and Librarian of Congress, subsequently endeavored to excuse himself for not having even attempted to save the books in his custody; but it was shown that the books and papers of the departments were saved, and that the library might have been removed to a place of safety before the arrival of the British Vandals.

Ex-President Jefferson, who was then living in retirement at Monticello, where theoretical agricultural operations and other un-

successful business experiments had seriously embarrassed his pecuniary affairs, profited by the opportunity thus offered for obtaining relief by disposing of a large portion of his private library. Many of the most useful books he retained until his death, when they were taken to Washington and there sold at public auction; but the great bulk of the collection which he had made abroad and at home, numbering six thousand seven hundred volumes, he offered to Congress for \$23,950. The Democratic Senators and Representatives gladly availed themselves of this opportunity for indirectly pensioning their political leader, and thus relieving him from pressing pecuniary embarrassments. The Senate promptly passed the bill, but there was a decided opposition to it manifested in the House of Representatives by Daniel Webster and others. Mr. Cyrus King, of Massachusetts, vainly endeavored to have provision made for the rejection of all books of an atheistical, irreligious, and immoral tendency, but the purchase was ordered by that body by a vote of 81 ayes to 71 nays. When the library was brought in wagons to Washington the books were deposited in a room hastily provided for their reception in the hotel building temporarily occupied by Congress, which stood where the present Post-office Department was subsequently built. The collection was found to be especially rich in Bibles and theological and philosophical works, but the most valuable portion was a series of volumes of pamphlets

which Mr. Jefferson had collected and annotated.

Mr. Jefferson had arranged and catalogued his books on a plan borrowed from Bacon's classification of science, which was, at his request, adopted by Mr. George Watterson, who was then appointed librarian by President Madison. There were in the catalogue made in accordance with this classification one hundred and seventy-five alphabets, arranged in arbitrary sequence, and it required an intimate knowledge of the library to use it without great waste of time. Mr. Watterson was a native of Scotland, who had been brought to the metropolis when a lad, and who remembered having seen President Washington lay the corner-stone of the Capitol with Masonic honors. When a young man he became a journalist, and a complimentary poem which he wrote and published having attracted the attention of Mrs. Madison, she became his patroness, and eventually secured his appointment as Librarian of Congress. While he graced the position, from 1815 to 1829, he wrote several pleasant local books, and he did much toward making the library a resort for the best-informed Congressmen, especially after he took possession of the new hall, which was where the library is now located. It was finished, in accordance with the Jeffersonian classification, with a row of alcoves on either side, over which two galleries were divided into corresponding sections, each alcove and section being devoted to books on a partic-



"LIGHT UP!"

ular subject. In these alcoves the belles of the capital used, on pleasant afternoons during the sessions of Congress, to hold their receptions and to receive the homage of their admirers. On one occasion, so it was said, a wealthy Southern Representative, who was glean- ing materials for a speech in an upper section, heard through the opening for the window, which extended into the alcove beneath, the well-known voice of his daughter, who was being persuaded by a penniless adventurer to elope. The angry parent lost no time in going down stairs, calling the previous question, and postponing the proposed action *sine die*.

In December, 1825, soon after the Library of Congress had been removed into its new hall, it narrowly escaped destruction a second time by fire. A candle which had been left burning in one of the galleries by a gentleman who was reading there at a late hour the previous night was the probable origin of the fire, which ascended to the ceiling, consuming the books on several shelves. These, however, were duplicate copies of public documents, which had been used for filling up the vacant new shelves, and no works of any value were destroyed.

When General Jackson was elected President, in 1829, and there was a general "rotation in office," it was alleged that Mr. Waterson had given circulation to scandalous stories concerning the late Mrs. Jackson, and he was promptly removed. His successor, Mr. John S. Meehan, was also an editor by profession, and his services in bringing about the previous political revolution were thus rewarded. He was a good politician and a courteous gentleman, qualified for the position in those days, when the librarian neither asserted any prerogative nor exercised any judgment in the selection of books,



AN ACTION POSTPONED SINE DIE.

which was made by the joint committee of the two Houses of Congress. Governor Dickenson, of New Jersey, Edward Everett, and John Quincy Adams distinguished themselves when members of the Library Committee by their careful attention to this duty; but they could not make many valuable acquisitions with the limited appropriations at their disposal, which varied from \$500 to \$1000 per annum, and out of which bills for book-binding had to be paid.

A Law Library was established by an act of Congress, approved on the 14th of July, 1832, by President Jackson, as a part of the Library of Congress. There were at that time 2011 law-books in the library, of which 639 had belonged to Mr. Jefferson. A special appropriation of \$5000 was made, with a further annual sum of \$1000, to be expended in the purchase of law-books, and a room adjoining the Library of Congress was fitted up for this new department, which was placed under the supervision of the justices of the Supreme Court.

The Library of Congress, at the expiration

of fifty years from its original organization, contained only about 50,000 volumes, and it was a matter of regret, publicly expressed in Congress, that there was not one branch of liberal study, even among those of greatest interest to our legislators, in which it was not miserably deficient. In international and civil law, home politics, natural history, and a few other departments the collection was tolerably good; but there was a great lack of French and German literature, although these are the vernacular tongues of a large portion of our citizens. There were none of the numerous writers of the vast empire of Russia; nothing of the curious literatures of Poland, of Hungary, or of Bohemia; only the commonest books in Italian and in Spanish; and not a volume in the language of Portugal, rich as it is in various literature, and especially in the wild yet true romance of discovery and conquest that comes down to us through the pages of learned De Larros and quaint old Castanheda, ringing upon the ear and stirring the blood like the sound of a far-off trumpet. So, too, with our own literature, especially the history of the North American Continent. The studious traveler from abroad, who had hoped to inspect at the seat of government correct sources of information respecting the early history of this republic of yesterday, found to his disappointment that he must go to New York city, or to Providence, Rhode Island, and there knock at private doors.

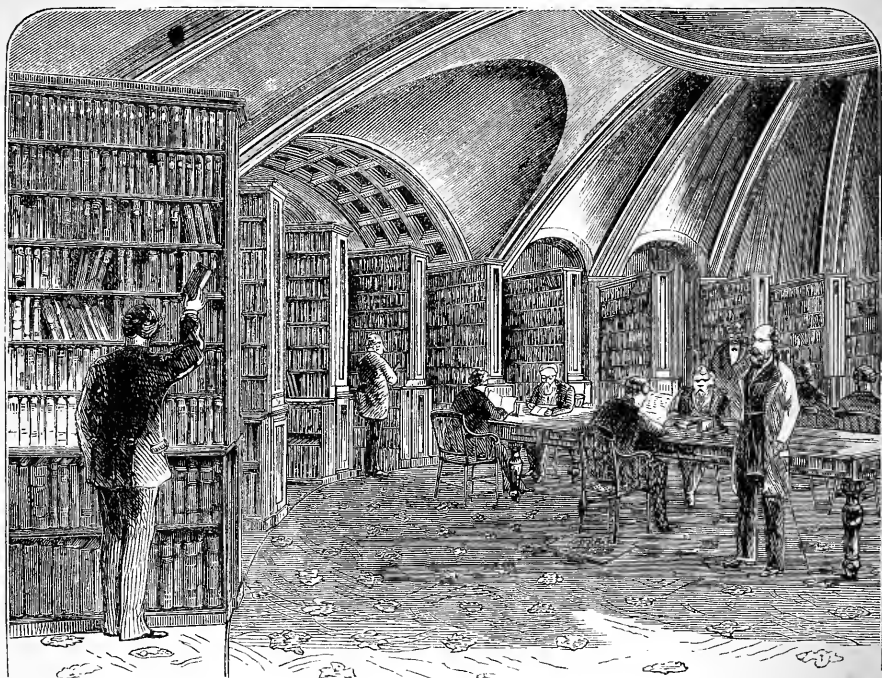
Rufus Choate (then a Senator from Massachusetts), George P. Marsh (then a Representative from Vermont), and other prominent members of the Twenty-ninth Congress, aware of the barrenness of the Congressional Library, endeavored to secure the annual expenditure of not less than \$20,000 of the income of the Smithsonian bequest for the formation of a library, which, for extent, completeness, and value, "should be worthy of the donor of the fund, and of the nation, and of this age." A law was enacted authorizing the Regents of the Smithsonian Institution to thus form a library, and Professor C. C. Jewett, who had paid great attention to the subject, was engaged as the librarian; but a majority of the regents subsequently decided to abandon the project, and to expend their entire income in scientific researches. This was a great disappointment to those who had advocated the creation of a national library, especially to Mr. Choate, who at once resigned his position as regent. The Smithsonian Institution, he said, "owes a great library to the capital of the New World; something to be seen, preserved, and to grow, into which shall be slowly, but surely and judiciously, gathered the best thoughts of all the civilizations."

The Library of Congress was forced upon the attention of the public by a third fire on the morning of December 25, 1851, which

destroyed 35,000 volumes, about three-fifths of the entire collection. Nearly all the works of art which had graced the library were also destroyed, among them Stuart's portraits of the first five Presidents; original portraits of Columbus, Cortéz, Bolivar, Steuben, and Peyton Randolph; busts of Jefferson, Lafayette, and Taylor; and upward of eleven hundred bronze medals which had been received from Europe through Vattémare's system of international exchanges.

Congress, which was in session, at once made liberal appropriations for reconstructing the library, which was erected entirely of cast iron, and consequently fire-proof. This is now the main room of the library, and it is ninety-one feet long, thirty-four feet wide, and thirty-four feet high, with three stories of iron book-cases on either side. On the lower story are alcoves nine feet wide, nine feet six inches high, and eight feet six inches deep, with seven shelves on each side and at the back. On the second story are similar alcoves, excepting that their projection is but five feet, which leaves a gallery resting on the fronts of the alcoves beneath three feet six inches in width. A similar platform is constructed on the alcoves of the second story, forming a gallery to approach the upper book-cases, thus making three stories, receding as they ascend. These galleries, which are continued across the ends of the hall, are protected by pedestals and railings, and are approached by semicircular staircases, also of cast iron, recessed in the end walls. The ceiling is wholly composed of iron and glass, and is embellished with ornate panels and foliated pendants. The pilasters which divide the alcoves are tastefully ornamented, and the whole is painted a delicate cream-color, relieved by gilding. The main entrance is from a passageway opening from the western door of the rotunda, on the same level.

Before this magnificent hall had been completed Congress appropriated \$75,000, with the continuance of an annual sum of \$5000, for the purchase of books, so that the library was superior to what it had been before the last fire, when it rose, phoenix-like, from its ashes. But the purchases were made on the old plan, under the direction of the joint committee on the library, the chairman of which then, and for several previous and subsequent sessions, was Senator Pearce, of Maryland, a graduate of Princeton College. There was not in the Library of Congress a modern encyclopedia, or a file of a New York daily newspaper, or of any newspaper except the venerable daily *National Intelligencer*; while *De Bow's Review* was the only American magazine taken, although the London *Court Journal* was regularly received, and bound at the close of each successive year. All literature not in accordance with the conservative construc-



THE LAW LIBRARY.

tion of the Constitution was excluded, and the library was only useful to those eminently respectable Congressmen who sat in the stern of the ship of state complacently watching the track which it had left in the political waters as it passed along, and apparently never dreaming of the breakers ahead!

The new library hall was ready for occupation on the 1st of July, 1853, and the books were again arranged in accordance with the ponderous Jeffersonian classification. The Law Library had meanwhile been removed to a suit of rooms in the basement story of the north wing, and a liberal annual appropriation of \$10,000 was rapidly making it the most complete collection of legal lore in the world. Its special custodian, Mr. C. H. W. Meehan, a son of the then librarian, had been in charge of the law department since 1835, and was intrusted with the choice of books purchased—a well-merited recognition of his ability and thorough acquaintance with this department of literature, indorsed by his retention in office.

In December, 1860, the Law Library was removed into the basement room formerly occupied by the Supreme Court, semicircular in form, with a massive groined arched ceiling, resting upon short Doric columns. A sculptured group on the wall, representing Fame crowned with the rising sun and pointing to the Constitution, while Justice holds her scales, recalls the previous occu-

pancy of the room, where Webster, Clay, Wirt, and others "learned in the law" used to argue great constitutional questions before the highest tribunal in the land. The librarian's mahogany desk, of semicircular form, with faded green brocade hangings, formerly graced the Senate-chamber, and behind it presided the successive Vice-Presidents, and Presidents of the Senate *pro tem.*, from 1825 to 1860.

On the shelves of the book-cases which project from the semicircular wall, converging toward an opposite centre, and forming alcoves, is now the most complete law library in the world. Lincoln's Inn library contains a larger number of books, but two-thirds of them are works on miscellaneous subjects, and although the library of Halle, in Germany, and the Advocates' Library at Edinburgh are rich in ancient law, neither of them has been kept up: indeed, the latter was recently offered for sale. In the Law Library of Congress are every volume of English, Irish, and Scotch reports, as well as the American; a copious collection of case law; and a complete collection of the statutes of all civilized governments, including those of Russia since 1649, which fill about one hundred quarto volumes. There are also many curious law-books, including the first edition of Blackstone's Commentaries, and an original edition of the report of the trial of Cagliostro, Rohan, and La Motte for the theft of Marie Antoinette's diamond

necklace. All the books are bound in calf or sheep, of that "underdone pie-crust color" in which Charles Dickens described a lawyer's library as dressed, and they are much used by the eminent legal gentlemen who come to Washington to practice in the Supreme Court.

When, in 1861, Abraham Lincoln was inaugurated President of the United States, Mr. Meehan, Sen., was in his turn "rotated," and the place of Librarian of Congress was given to Dr. John G. Stephenson, of Indiana, who had no especial qualification except that he belonged to the winning side. Fortunately for the interests of the library, Dr. Stephenson appointed as his first assistant Ainsworth R. Spofford, Esq., who had been connected with the press of Cincinnati, and who was practically acquainted with books and the book trade. In December, 1864, Dr. Stephenson resigned, and President Lincoln appointed Mr. Spofford librarian, a position for which he was eminently qualified, and the Library of Congress has since borne testimony to his varied knowledge, to his untiring industry, and to his never-failing courtesy. The Jeffersonian system of classification was abandoned as unsuited to the necessities of readers consulting a large library, and a new catalogue of the books, arranged alphabetically under the head of authors, was issued, followed by another catalogue, arranged according to subjects. Congressmen now, finding that the library was of practical use to them, voted liberal appropriations for its enlargement, and the books which had been collected by the Smithsonian Institution—numbering some 40,000 volumes in all—found a resting-place on its shelves, relieving the regents of the expense of caring for them. The library of Peter Force, purchased of him for \$100,000, was a more valuable acquisition, embracing some 45,000 separate titles, among which were many valuable works on early American history, with maps, newspapers, pamphlets, and manuscripts illustrating the colonial and revolutionary epochs.

To accommodate these large additions to the library two new halls were added, extending eastward from the north and south ends of the main hall (already described), and forming three sides of a square. These additional halls, which are also constructed entirely of iron, are each ninety-five feet in length, twenty-nine feet six inches in width, and thirty-eight feet high, which are so nearly the dimensions of the main hall that the difference is not noticed, although they have each an additional tier of galleries.

In the south wing are the treasures of the Force collection, now being catalogued and classified, and partly piled up in stacks. There are nearly 1000 volumes of American newspapers, including 245 printed prior to

1800; a large collection of the journals and laws of the colonial Assemblies, showing the legislative policy which culminated in their independence; the highly prized publications of the presses of the Bradfords, Benjamin Franklin, and Isaiah Thomas; forty-one different works of Increase and Cotton Mather, printed at Cambridge and Boston, from 1671 to 1735; a perfect copy of that rarest of American books, Eliot's Indian Bible; and a large and valuable collection of "incunabula," illustrating the progress of the art of printing from its infancy. The manuscripts are even more valuable than the printed books, including two autograph journals of George Washington—one dated 1775, during Braddock's expedition, and one in 1787, at Mount Vernon; two volumes of an original military journal of Major-General Greene, 1781-82; twelve folio volumes of the papers of Paul Jones while commanding American cruisers in 1776-78; a private journal left by Arthur Lee while minister to France in 1776-77; thirty or forty orderly books of the Revolution; forty-eight volumes of historical autographs of great rarity and interest; and an immense mass of manuscript materials for the "American Archives"—a documentary history of America, the publication of which was commenced by order of Congress. The only cause for regret connected with this wing of the library, where the literary treasures collected by Peter Force are enshrined, is that his life could not have been spared long enough to have seen his beloved collection so well cared for by the republic.

In the north wing are the illustrated works and collections of engravings, which always attract visitors, who can sit at the tables there provided for their accommodation and enjoy the reproductions of the choicest art treasures of the Old World. In the upper gallery of this wing are bound copies of the periodicals of all nations, embracing complete series of the leading magazines of Great Britain and of the United States. An adjacent attic hall is devoted to the collection of newspapers—those repositories of general information which had been ignored prior to the administration of Mr. Spofford, but to which he has paid especial attention. Among the unbroken files are those of the *New York Evening Post* from the issue of its first number in 1801, the *London Gazette* from 1665, the *French Moniteur* (royal, imperial, and republican) from 1789, the *London Times*, and the *London Illustrated News*. The prominent daily journals of New York are now regularly filed, and bound at the close of each year, and there is a complete set of all the newspapers which have been published in the District of Columbia, including over one hundred which no longer live.

A rigid enforcement of that provision of the

copyright law which makes it obligatory to deposit in the library a copy of every work "entered according to act of Congress," secures a complete collection of American publications, which could not be otherwise obtained. These copyright books are of increasing importance, extent, and value, and will constitute a curious record of the growth and style of our national literature. There is, of course, a complete collection of all the varied publications of the Federal government, and by law fifty additional copies of each work are printed for the Library of Congress, to be used in a well-regulated system of international exchanges, which brings in return the valuable public documents of other nations. Liberal appropriations are annually made by Congress for the purchase of books and newspapers, while the large amount of binding required is executed at the government printing-office without taxing the funds of the library. The annual appropriations—after provision has been made for the foreign and domestic serials, and for the most important issues of the press abroad in jurisprudence, political economy, history, and allied topics—are distributed in the purchase of books in all departments of literature and science, no general topic being neglected, although as yet none can be assumed as being complete. To that end auction lists and trade catalogues are assiduously read and profited by, and especial attention is paid to the collections of dealers in second-hand books—those purveyors for good libraries.

The Library of Congress is thus beginning to assume national proportions, and is rapidly gaining on the government libraries at Paris and at London, while it is made more practically useful than any other great library in the world by the annual issue of a printed catalogue of its accessions. With this catalogue—arranged alphabetically by authors and again by subjects—it is an easy task for the frequenters of the library to obtain books on any subject desired, especially when they can obtain the further aid of the accomplished librarian and his willing assistants. The practical result is shown by the register of books taken from the library by those enjoying that privilege. Fifteen years ago not more than three out of five Congressmen used the library; now nine out of ten take out books, some having over a hundred volumes during a session. Nor can any one visit the library at any time when its doors are open without finding from ten to fifty citizens seated at the reading-tables, where all can peruse such books as they may request to have brought to them from the shelves. The library is thus thrown open to any one and every one, without any formality of admission or any restriction, except that slight barriers exclude the visitors from the bookshelves, and prevent them from taking down

the books without the knowledge of the attendants.

Bibliophiles find on the shelves of the Library of Congress much that they regard as precious, although the profane call it trash, in the shape of formidable folios exquisitely printed by the Elzevirs, or the small Aldus editions of classical authors, easily carried in the capacious pockets of students of the old school. Many of these antique books, like the dowagers and the spinsters who grace the wall-seats of a ball-room, will gratefully repay a little attention from the student, and will convince him that in literature, as in agriculture, "the new grain cometh up from the old fields." The ashes of Wycliffe were scattered to the winds, but despotic bigotry could not destroy Wycliffe's Bible. Homer's birth-place and his burial-place are unknown, but numerous editions of his *Iliad* delight and interest our heroes and our lovers. Our legislators ponder over the patriotic sentiments of Sidney, our poets read Tasso and Dante, our scholars revel in the writings of Molière and Ceryantes, and our statesmen, in studying the noble diction of Bacon, draw "from the well of pure English undefiled." Indeed, the Library of Congress, with its two hundred thousand volumes, may well be compared to the island of Delos, where the ancient Greeks and their neighbors used to meet in peace, forget foreign and domestic strife, and harmoniously join in festivities—for it is the neutral ground of the national metropolis, where learning is domesticated, and where studious men and women can meet, undisturbed by the noisy clamor of mercenary politicians.

On the western side of the main library hall is a lofty colonnade, from the balcony of which the weary student or the curious visitor can enjoy a panorama which has all the elements of grandeur and loveliness. Below the spectator are the Capitol grounds, with their trees, parterres of flowers, and fountains; while beyond them, directly in front, stretches the public reservation, reaching a mile and a half to the placid Potomac, and adorned with the government conservatories, the picturesque Smithsonian Institution, the Agricultural Department with its terraced gardens, and the unfinished Washington Monument. Broad avenues radiate in different directions—Virginia Avenue going to the left until it joins the Long Bridge, leading into the Old Dominion, while inclining to the right at a similar angle is Pennsylvania Avenue, the main artery of the metropolis, leading to the Executive Mansion, with its surrounding departments. Shade trees mark the lines of streets, which cross each other at right angles, and through which the avenues pass at all sorts of angles, while the monotony of house-roofs is varied by imposing public buildings, churches, and

school-houses, with here and there a park. The broad Potomac, generally studded with sails, winds its way from antique Georgetown on the distant right, down past Washington, to sombre Alexandria, far off on the left; while on the distant Virginia bank rise the verdant slopes of Arlington Heights, with a background of wooded hills reaching to the horizon. After enjoying this scene, which possesses all the elements of picturesque beauty as well as of metropolitan grandeur, one can turn back into the library with a fresh zest for its treasures, and feel that in fostering so well-managed and so useful an institution, "beautiful for situation," our national legislators are obeying the constitutional injunction "to promote the general welfare."

A MADRIGAL.

To the Rev. Mr. FLEMING, M.A., this SOUTHEAST VIEW of his SCHOOL in ASHWOOD, near MILDON, erected A.D. 1770, in Gloriam Dei Opt. Max. in Usum Ecclesiæ & Republicæ, is Respectfully Inscribed by his Dutiful Servant.

GEO. MARWOOD.

THIS is the inscription under a quaint old print which, keeping its dingy frame of black wood, hangs above the book-case in my bedroom. It is the ugliest picture possible: the house, drawn in careful perspective, stands grimly forward without a projection about roof or window, except a little attempt at a porch over the door on the east side; there are six windows on the ground-floor of the south front, six windows on the first floor, and above these twelve smaller ones in a row, evidently dormitories, cold, hot, staring, unbeautiful, unsuggestive. A large walled inclosure, half garden and half paddock, runs down the eastern side; the garden has a round bed in its centre and seven or eight square beds on either side, pointed at intervals with Irish yews, and set in gravel instead of turf. There is a man in a three-cornered hat vaguely walking in the garden, and a serving-man holding a horse in the paddock beyond; while on the south side is a kind of pleached alley with a double row of sycamore-trees, odd little groups of boys with long hair and long coats and long waistcoats, frilled collars and knee-breeches, strolling about beneath them, and two grave divines walking sedately toward you on the extreme left. That is my picture. And for all its grayness and its ugliness and its stiff lines, I sit and look at it sometimes until a change creeps over all. I hear happy summer sounds, chirping of birds, the hum of tiny insects, the sweep of the scythe, boys' voices. I see sweet flowers in the ugly stiff beds, tender shadows under the flickering sycamores, and, above all, I see Dorothy Fleming, with her bright, flashing, sunny face, with her soft dress of dainty muslin, with her little delicious old-fashioned great-

grandmotherly air, flying out of the garden door to meet her father.

Young Sir Jasper Harrington always would have it that she was like a robin, and perhaps he could not have found an apter similitude, there was something so pretty, so confiding, and yet so spirited about the little thing. Every one was fond of her. Every thing that was weak, or frightened, or hurt seemed to take refuge with her and expect her to do battle for them. It was not a little ridiculous to imagine her your champion, and yet you might have had a worse one. There was something in her daring which, from such a mite, was irresistible. Once when a great roistering fellow was ill-treating a horse, Dorothy ran up to him with her face all ablaze and fairly shamed him by her passionate indignation; he went away mumbling out something like an excuse, at all events in a different tone from the oaths and curses he had been letting fly. Dorothy remained triumphant, and then suddenly began to tremble, and went home looking pale and scared.

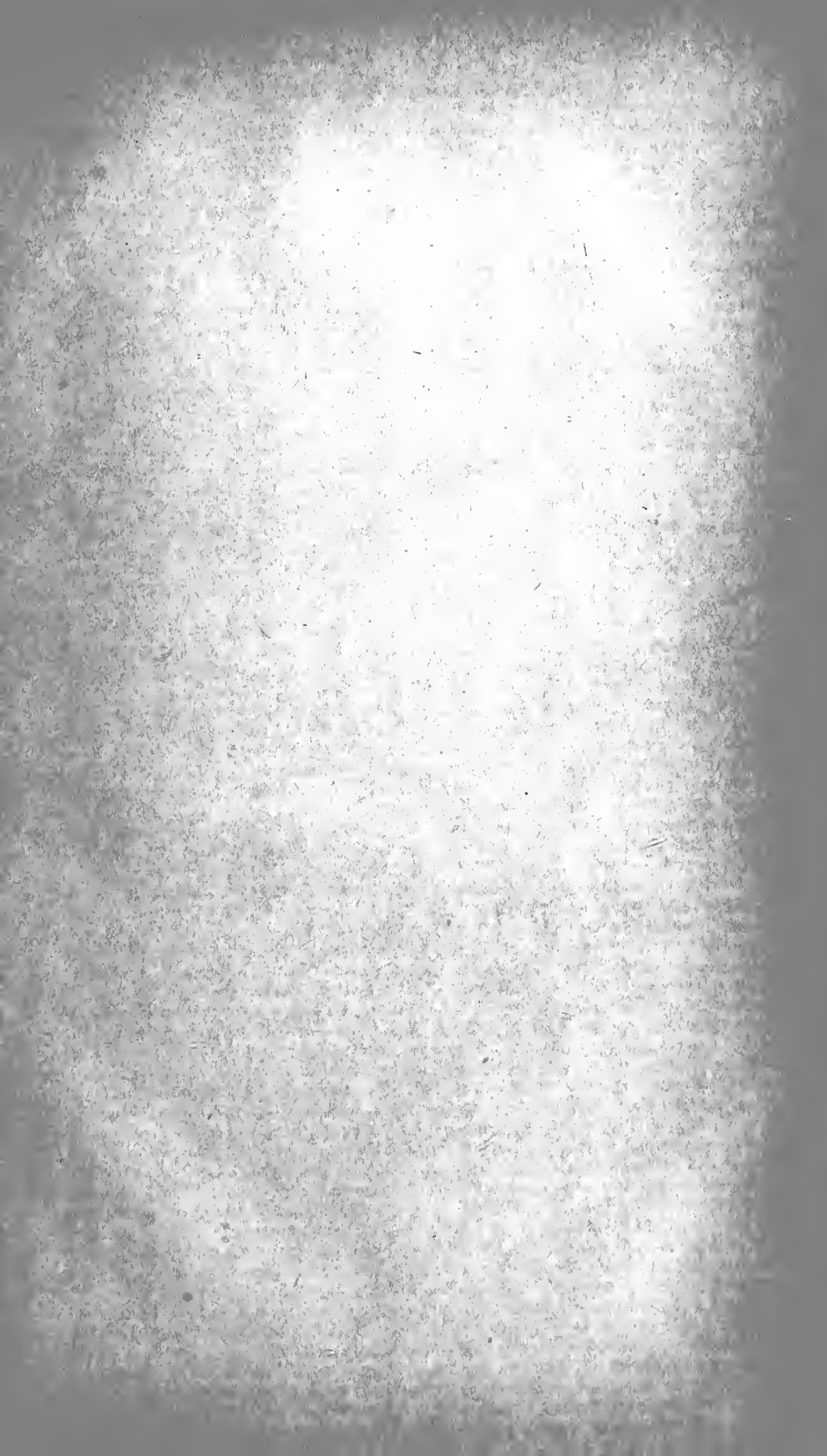
"How wicked those men are!" she said, with a sort of sob in her voice, laying her little brown head upon Mrs. Harriot's shoulder.

"What has happened, niece?" said the old lady, a wistful look of trouble creeping into her faded eyes. "Is it any thing more that they want to do to poor Austin? Because then we had better go away, he and I."

Dorothy put up her little hands and drew the tender, troubled old face down to her own, kissing it.

"Now you are fancying things," she said, half chidingly, half protectingly; "and, to be sure, I had no business to make you sad. Has Molly told you that the roses are ready for the pot-pourri? Come and see whether she has put cloves enough."

And so the two went up the narrow staircase together, a tall stooping elderly woman, and this little alert eager creature, with hair and eyes of bright warm russet-brown, who could defend dumb animals, and support poor Mrs. Harriot's failing age, and keep the house, and teach the little boys, and be altogether brave and dauntless, and yet would color crimson and look beseechingly if Sir Jasper Harrington did but stop them in the road, and jump off his horse to wish good-day. It was a strange little household this school of Mr. Fleming's, which might rather have been called Dorothy's kingdom, since here, as in other instances one could name, they were not the nominal heads that ruled. Brother and sister were alike, tall, gentle, listless people—unready would perhaps be the best word to use—yet with a certain sweet dignity, a transparent simplicity, a trustfulness as beautiful as a child's, and the shadow of a great trouble which



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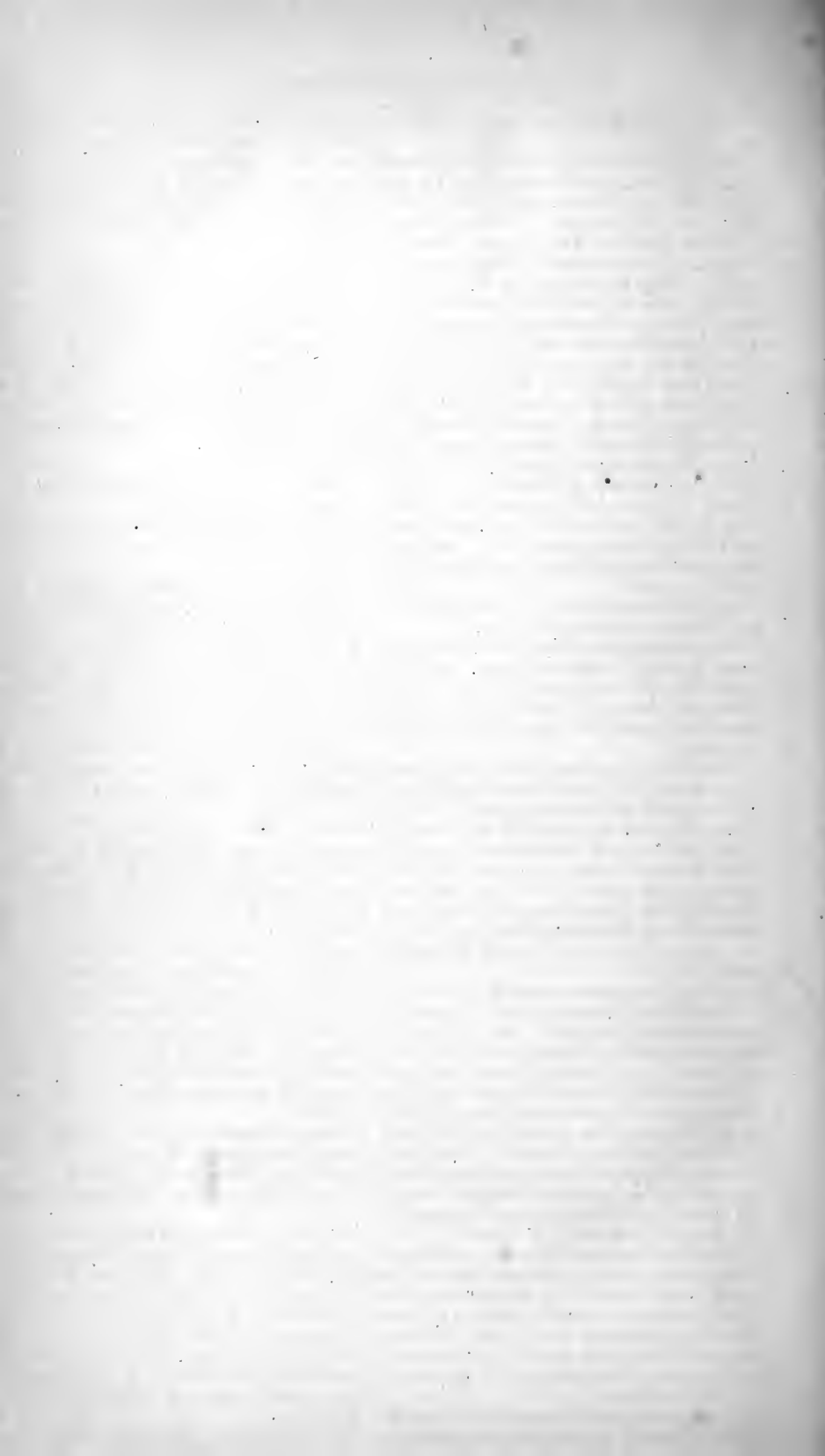
in the U. S.

Chapman's Mag.

Apr. 1877.

7

J. P. ...



"Why, we are only six miles from the place."

"What does that matter? We shall have had a good long drive together, and I will dine with you after it; and I will ride or drive with you every day, if you will let me."

Vizard could not help smiling. He was disarmed. "You impulsive young monkey," said he, "I shall do nothing of the kind. In the first place, I couldn't turn back from any thing; I'm only a man. In the next place, I have been thinking it over, as you have; and this is a good move of ours, though I was a little mortified at first. Occupation is the best cure of love, and this old lady will find you plenty. Besides, nursing improves the character. Look at that frivolous girl Fanny, how she has come out. And you know, Zoe, if you get sick of it in a day or two, you have only to write to me, and I will send for you directly. A short absence, with so reasonable a motive as visiting a sick aunt, will provoke no comments. It is all for the best."

This set Zoe at her ease, and brother and sister resumed their usual manners.

They reached Miss Maitland's house, and were admitted to her sick-room. She was really very ill, and thanked them so pathetically for coming to visit a poor lone old woman that now they were both glad they had come.

Zoe entered on her functions with an alacrity that surprised herself, and Vizard drove away. But he did not drive straight home. He had started from Vizard Court with other views. He had telegraphed Lord Uxmoor the night before, and now drove to his place, which was only five miles distant. He found him at home, and soon told him his errand. "Do you remember meeting a young fellow at my house, called Severne?"

"I do," said Lord Uxmoor, dryly enough.

"Well, he has turned out an impostor."

Uxmoor's eye flashed. He had always suspected Severne of being his rival, and a main cause of his defeat. "An impostor?" said he: "that is rather a strong word. Certainly I never heard a gentleman tell such a falsehood as he volunteered about—what's the fellow's name?—a detective."

"Oh, Poikilus. That is nothing. That was one of his white lies. He is a villain all round, and a forger by way of climax."

"A forger! What, a criminal?"

"Rather. Here are his drafts. The drawer and acceptor do not exist. The whole thing was written by Edward Severne, whose indorsement figures on the bill. He got me to cash these bills. I deposit them with you, and I ask you for a warrant to commit him—if he should come this way."

"Is that likely?"

"Not at all; it is a hundred to one he never shows his nose again in Barfordshire."

When he was found out, he bolted, and left his very clothes in my house. I packed them off to the 'Swan' at Taddington. He has never been heard of since; and I have warned him, by advertisement, that he will be arrested if ever he sets foot in Barfordshire."

"Well, then?"

"Well, then, I am not going to throw away a chance. The beggar had the impudence to spoon on my sister Zoe. That was my fault, not hers. He was an old college acquaintance, and I gave him opportunities—I deserve to be horsewhipped. However, I am not going to commit the same blunder twice. My sister is in your neighborhood for a few days."

"Ah!"

"And perhaps you will be good enough to keep your eye on her."

"I feel much honored by such a commission. But you have not told me where Miss Vizard is."

"With her aunt, Miss Maitland, at Somerville Villa, near Bagley. Apropos, I had better tell you what she is there for, or your good Dowager will be asking her to parties. She has come to nurse her aunt Maitland. The old lady is seriously ill, and all our young coquettes are going in for nursing. We have a sick lady at our house, I am sorry to say, and she is nursed like a queen by Doctress Gale and ex-Flirt Fanny Dover. Now is fulfilled the saying that was said,

'O woman! in our hours of ease—'

I spare you the rest, and simply remark that our Zoe, fired by the example of those two ladies, has devoted herself to nursing Aunt Maitland. It is very good of her, but experience tells me she will very soon find it extremely trying; and as she is a very pretty girl, and therefore a fit subject of male charity, you might pay her a visit now and then, and show her that this best of all possible worlds contains young gentlemen of distinction, with long and glossy beards, as well as peevish old women, who are extra selfish and tyrannical when they happen to be sick."

Uxmoor positively radiated as this programme was unfolded to him. Vizard observed that, and chuckled inwardly.

He then handed him the forged acceptances.

Lord Uxmoor begged him to write down the facts on paper, and also his application for the warrant. He did so. Lord Uxmoor locked the paper up, and the friends parted. Vizard drove off, easy in his mind, and congratulating himself, not unreasonably, on his little combination, by means of which he had provided his sister with a watchdog, a companion, and an honorable lover, all in one.

Uxmoor put on his hat and strode forth

into his own grounds, with his heart beating high at this strange turn of things in favor of his love.

Neither foresaw the strange combinations which were to arise out of an event that appeared so simple and one-sided.

THE PUBLIC LIBRARIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE publication by the Bureau of Education of a special report upon the public libraries of the United States* is most opportune, and will be most welcome to those interested in the development of our national culture. The very idea of a public library—that is to say, of a library to be used by the people, not theoretically, but practically, and the success or failure of which should be estimated not by the number or the variety of the books it contains, but by the number of its readers and the quality of the books it circulates—is peculiarly a product of the modern era, and though the United States can not perhaps lay claim to having originated it, yet, from the evidence afforded by this report, it has met with such a hearty reception in this country, and has been so apt an aid to our system of popular education, that certainly it is here we may expect to find the best results arising from its practical realization.

The logic of events has taught us that before any class or individual in society can be politically free, political freedom must be enjoyed by all. It has been the destiny of our republic to demonstrate this, and herein lies the political difference separating the United States from all the republics of antiquity. In them political freedom meant the freedom of only a class, and their industrial society rested upon slavery. Similarly, heretofore in the world's history the education and culture of the class which has enjoyed the means for attaining these have presupposed the contemporary existence of an illiterate majority. But possibly it is reserved for the United States in the coming century of its national existence to demonstrate that real culture is possible to a class or to individuals in society only when all the members of it are cultured, or at least when the means and conditions of culture are at the disposal of each and every member of the body-politic.

The practical realization of so thorough a culture of the people may yet seem to many merely a Utopian dream, but whether it is or

not, there can be no question that our common-school system, under the direction of so trained an army of teachers as our normal schools are steadily fitting themselves to prepare, and public libraries conceived in the spirit which now actuates the best of those in existence, and under the management of men who comprehend the educational function of their position as thoroughly as many of the librarians who have written articles for this special report, constitute a new and powerful force acting directly toward this end. These agencies, combined with the movement toward making education compulsory which has already obtained so strong a foothold as to justify the prediction that it will become general, furnish the whole apparatus and set it in motion for the culture of the people, such as has never before been dreamed of as a possibility.

Before attempting to forecast what may be the results of this practical popularization of culture, it will be well to epitomize the information which this report gives us, now for the first time in concrete form, concerning the growth and condition of the libraries of the United States.

In 1652 Hezekiah Usher, the first bookseller, began his business in Boston, Massachusetts. The first settlement of the town was made in 1630. The printing-press at Cambridge was in operation, and had been put under the control of Samuel Green, whose descendants—he had nineteen children—are so widely scattered, and so well known in the history of printing in the colonies. Green remained in the management of the Cambridge press nearly fifty years. Isaiah Thomas, the author of the *History of Printing*, collected nearly one hundred books he printed.

There must have been some demand for books in the Massachusetts colony at this time to have induced Usher to settle there as a bookseller. The fact, too, that he continued in the business over twenty years, and made a fortune in it, shows that he found a demand for his wares. That he was successful is known from the fact that in 1677 he advanced to the State of Massachusetts the purchase-money for Mainé, the proprietary right to which the grandson of Gorges, the original grantee, sold for twelve hundred and fifty pounds. At this time, also, we have the information that there were four booksellers in Boston; Dunton, the London bookseller, having carried there an invoice of books on speculation, "most of them practical," and "well suited to the genius of New England," reports that he found this number of competitors on the ground. Usher was not only a bookseller, he was also a publisher, and in 1672 obtained from the General Court a monopoly for seven years for printing the laws of the col-

* *Public Libraries of the United States of America. Their History, Condition, and Management.* Special Report. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education. Washington: Government Printing-office. 1876. Part I., p. xxxv. and 1187. Part II., p. 89. 8vo. Part II. consists of Rules for a printed Dictionary Catalogue, by Charles A. Cutter, Librarian of the Boston Athenæum.

only. He was the agent, also, of the London Society for the Propagation of the Gospel among the Indians, and superintended their publications in Massachusetts. It was at the expense of this society that Eliot's translation of the Bible in the dialect of the Natick Indians was printed, and in this and similar works the society must have spent over two thousand pounds.

Boston, as the chief city of New England, continued to be the literary centre of the colonies into the middle of the next century. In fact, there was but little attention given to books in any of the other cities. A singular evidence of the rarity of books is given by Franklin in his life. In 1724, returning to Philadelphia from a visit he had made to Boston, he brought with him his collection of books, together with those belonging to his friend Collins. This collection he describes as "a pretty collection of mathematics and natural philosophy." He travelled from Boston to New York in a sloop, and having arrived in New York, he says: "The then Governor of New York, Burnet [son of Bishop Burnet], hearing from the captain that a young man, one of his passengers, had a great many books, desired he would bring me to see him. I waited upon him accordingly, and would have taken Collins with me but that he was not sober. The Governor treated me with great civility, showed me his library, which was a very large one, and we had a good deal of conversation about books and authors." Evidently the possession of a collection of books was rare enough in New York at that time to excite attention and comment.

In his life Franklin also speaks thus of the facilities of the colonies for literary culture: "At the time I established myself in Philadelphia there was not a good bookseller's shop in any of the colonies to the southward of Boston. In New York and Philadelphia, the printers were, indeed, stationers; they sold only paper, etc., almanacs, ballads, and a few common school-books. Those who loved reading were obliged to send for their books from England." In 1732 Franklin's scheme for a subscription library was put in operation. This library, which he calls "the mother of all the North American subscription libraries," exists today in the Philadelphia Library Company. He thus describes its organization: "I drew a sketch of the plan and rules that would be necessary, and got a skillful conveyancer, Mr. Charles Brockden, to put the whole in form of articles of agreement to be subscribed, by which each subscriber engaged to pay a certain sum down for the first purchase of books, and an annual contribution for increasing them. So few were the readers at that time in Philadelphia, and the majority of us so poor, that I was not able, with great industry, to find more than fifty

persons, mostly young tradesmen, willing to pay down for this purpose forty shillings each and ten shillings per annum. On this little fund we began. The books were imported; the library was open one day in the week for lending to the subscribers, on their promissory notes to pay double the value if not duly returned. The institution soon manifested its ability; was imitated by other towns and in other provinces. The libraries were augmented by donations, reading became fashionable, and our people, having no public amusements to divert their attention from study, became better acquainted with books, and in a few years were observed by strangers to be better instructed and more intelligent than people of the same rank generally are in other countries." The librarian was in attendance on Wednesday one hour and on Saturday two hours, at the private house in which the books were kept, and he had authority to allow "any civil gentleman to peruse the books of the library in the library room, but not to lend, or to suffer to be taken out of the library, by any person who is not a subscribing member, any of the said books, Mr. James Logan only excepted."

The library was a private subscription one, and not a public one where every one was welcome. But to Philadelphia belongs the credit of the establishment of the first truly public library, and its founder was James Logan, the secretary of William Penn, and for so many years the chief man in the colonial government of Pennsylvania. It was in his favor that the library established by Franklin made its exception to its rules. Mr. Logan had been consulted concerning the selection of the books bought for the subscription library. He was a scholar as well as a bibliophile, and by his will left his collection of books to the public.

Having canceled this will with the purpose of making another, he died before he had finished it, and his wife and heirs by a trust-deed carried out his wishes. By this deed it was provided "that there should be a perpetual succession of trustees, part of whom should be of the descendants of James Logan, preferring the male line to the female, as long as any of his descendants remained; that one of his male descendants, taken in priority of birth, and preferring the male line to the female line, should be librarian of the said public library, with a power of appointing deputies; that the library should be opened for the public use of the citizens, and that the books might be borrowed thereout under certain restrictions."

This library in 1792, on application to the Legislature of Pennsylvania, obtained a law by which it was made a part of the Philadelphia Library, the books being kept apart. In the building, not yet finished, in Philadelphia, to be known as the Ridgway Li-

brary, for the construction of which Dr. James Rush left his estate, valued at a million of dollars, both Franklin's subscription library and the Logan library will find their permanent refuge.

The Redwood Library, at Newport, Rhode Island, is another of the few pre-Revolutionary collections. In 1747 Abraham Redwood gave five hundred pounds for the purchase of a collection of books to a literary and philosophical society of Newport, in the formation of which, in 1730, Bishop Berkeley, then residing in Rhode Island, had taken part.

The town of Newport having given five hundred pounds for a building in 1750, the present one was erected on a lot given for this purpose by Henry Collins. During the occupation of Newport in the Revolution by the British, this library, like others in other cities, suffered from their depredation, many of the books being defaced and others carried off. When the library was purchased it was considered the finest collection on theology, history, and the arts and sciences in the colonies; and the building, designed by Peter Harrison, an English architect, who was the assistant in the construction of Blenheim House for the Duke of Marlborough, was considered a model. The dimensions of the building may be compared with others erected more recently for a similar purpose. The principal room for the library is thirty-seven feet long, twenty-six broad, and nineteen high. The wings, one on each side, furnish two rooms, each about twelve feet square. With the new life Newport has commenced as a summer resort the library has shared, and additions have been made to the original building in 1858 and 1875.

These slight sketches of the most important public libraries which existed prior to the Revolution will give some idea of the condition of the colonies with regard to the appliances of literary culture. Though from the inherent difficulty of making an accurate inventory of all the libraries of a public or semi-public character at the period of the Declaration of Independence, the list prepared in this special report may not be entirely accurate, yet it serves as the best attainable. From this it appears that in 1776 there were twenty-six public libraries in the colonies. Of these, Connecticut had four, containing an aggregate of 4400 volumes; of these, three were in Yale College, being the college library and those belonging to societies of the students. Maine had one, containing 93 volumes, in Portland: in strictness this should be classed with the Massachusetts collections. In Massachusetts there were five libraries, containing 8500, of which 7000 were in the libraries of Harvard College. New Jersey had one library, at the College of New Jersey, con-

taining 1200 volumes. New York had two libraries, both in the city, one belonging to Columbia College, containing 1500 volumes, and the other to the Society Library, consisting of 4000 volumes. Pennsylvania had eight such libraries, containing about 14,000 volumes, of which 5000 were in the Logan collection and 4300 in that of the Library Company. Rhode Island had three libraries—the Redwood collection, at Newport, consisting of 1500 volumes; the library of Brown University, at Providence, containing 500 volumes; and the Providence Library, 1000. South Carolina had one library, that of the Library Society, at Charleston, containing 5000 volumes. Virginia had one library, at the college of William and Mary, containing about 2000 volumes. This makes the total amount of volumes in the colonies at the time of the Declaration, accessible to the public for purposes of culture, about 43,000. To this should be added the first circulating library, established by John Mein, at Boston, in 1765. It had a printed catalogue, and claimed to have 1200 volumes. The yearly subscription was twenty-eight shillings. Mein soon afterward advertised that his stock of books for sale consisted of 10,000 volumes.

The following figures will show the result of a century in obtaining at least the appliances of literary culture: from 1775 to 1800 there were established 30 libraries; from 1800 to 1825, 179; from 1825 to 1850, 551; and from 1850 to 1875, 2481. This calculation includes libraries of all kinds, classified under the heads, Academy and Schools, College, Society, Law, Medical, Theological, Scientific, Historical, Public, Mercantile, Social, Young Men's Christian Association, Government, State and Territory, Garrison, Asylum and Reformatory, and Miscellaneous. This gives us in 1875 a total of 3682 libraries, numbering in the aggregate 12,276,964 volumes, making an average of over 3000 volumes to each, the limit below which no library is included in the list being 300 volumes.

The classification of the libraries is thus explained in the report: The academy and school libraries comprise those of all schools, except colleges and professional schools, and include seminaries and institutes for both sexes, business colleges, normal schools, academies, and high schools. The society libraries include all those belonging to the societies formed by the students in colleges. Scientific embraces the libraries of scientific schools, including agricultural and mechanical colleges and scientific societies. Public libraries embrace all the libraries open without charge, or only a nominal fee, to the public. Social libraries embrace the athenæums, young men's associations, institutes, and subscription libraries in general. Asylums and reformatory include those in

asylums, hospitals, work-houses, reform schools, and prisons. Miscellaneous embraces the libraries of secret and benevolent societies, and others which were so individual in character as not to be suited for a more specific classification.

Concerning the important matter of the financial basis of the public libraries of the country, the report says:

"The following table is presented with reluctance. Stated briefly, 358 libraries report permanent funds amounting to \$6,105,581 in the aggregate; 1364 report that they have no permanent funds; and 1960, considerably more than one-half, do not report either way. It should be remarked that the value of lands and buildings, unless yielding a revenue, is not included in the following statement.

"If one chose, he might with some reason conjecture, taking the following table as a basis, that the permanent funds of American public libraries aggregate about \$12,000,000; he might be nearly correct, and it is possible that he would be millions wide of the mark.

"The truth is that in the present state of library reports there is hardly a more difficult and thankless task than to undertake to prepare an acceptable statement of the finances of public libraries. The printed reports of some afford clear and intelligent statements of their funds, income, and expenditures; others may, perhaps, be comprehended by their makers; while others can hardly be intelligible to any one.

"As they gain experience, librarians will doubtless realize more fully the importance to themselves and their libraries of keeping more complete statistics."

By a classified table made up from the returns by sixty-two libraries, situated in California, Connecticut, District of Columbia, Illinois, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Texas, we learn the following facts concerning the circulation of their books, their expenses, and their income. These sixty-two libraries have an aggregate of 2,695,760 volumes; from forty-nine of these, containing 2,181,168 volumes, which gave a report of their circulation, it appears that there were taken out by readers during the year 4,455,514. To sixty of these libraries reporting, which have an aggregate amounting to 2,670,760 volumes, there were added in the year 154,924, showing an increase of nearly six per cent. The total yearly income reported by sixty-one of these libraries amounts to \$799,256. Of these fifty-six reported their expenditure during the year for books, periodicals, and binding at \$278,318, and fifty-eight their expenditures for salaries and incidental expenses as \$467,555.

That the people are interested in the growth of the libraries is best shown by the

promptness with which they rally to their support, not only as readers, but also as contributors, affording, it would seem, in all cases where the opportunity for so doing is offered them, their moral and pecuniary aid. In illustration of this point the report says: "It was designed to present a tabular view of the benefactions to public libraries, and strenuous efforts have been made to gather the necessary data for that purpose; but as it is found impracticable on account of its incompleteness to classify and tabulate properly the information received respecting the numerous gifts, it has been decided to substitute the following summary, showing by States the amount of the several benefactions, including gifts of money, land, and buildings, prepared from the special returns received, and from such printed reports as were found available for the purpose." From this it appears that the total amount for the United States is \$14,920,657, divided thus among the various States: California, \$1,022,000; Connecticut, \$773,607; Delaware, \$17,600; District of Columbia, \$25,000; Georgia, \$63,500; Illinois, \$2,644,050; Indiana, \$150,000; Iowa, \$13,850; Kansas, \$500; Louisiana, \$15,000; Maine, \$135,000; Maryland, \$1,426,500; Massachusetts, \$2,903,406; Minnesota, \$15,300; Missouri, \$194,637; Nebraska, \$1100; New Hampshire, \$58,379; New Jersey, \$416,750; New York, \$2,942,272; Ohio, \$197,500; Oregon, \$250; Pennsylvania, \$1,448,473; Rhode Island, \$294,781; South Carolina, \$35,000; Tennessee, \$450; Texas, \$18,000; Vermont, \$78,308; Virginia, \$26,000; Wisconsin, \$6500.

Large as this amount appears, yet the report says of it: "Information, much of which is doubtless reliable, though not in proper form for use, respecting many gifts not included above, and the fact that in a majority of instances where lands or buildings have been given they have simply been so reported, unaccompanied by estimates of their value, lead to the belief that it is not unsafe to estimate that the sum above reported does not represent more than about one-half the amount received by the public libraries of the United States from the benefactions of individuals, and that the real amount is nearer \$30,000,000 than \$15,000,000. And this does not include the books contributed from time to time, the number of which, in the present state of library statistics, it is simply useless to attempt to ascertain or estimate. Comparatively few libraries have the time to make an accurate return of such gifts covering the whole lifetime of their libraries, and many of them are debarred from doing so by imperfection or loss of records.

"It is fairly estimated that of the gifts of money, land, and buildings above recorded, at least five-sixths have been received within the last thirty-five years.

"It must be remembered that the above figures rigorously exclude all grants or other government, State, or municipal aid, and include only private benefactions."

To know, with even approximate accuracy, what amount of the community's wealth is appropriated for the appliances of culture, is most desirable, and it is unfortunate that the Bureau has not attempted to collect what information it could gather upon this point concerning the appropriations made by the State and municipal governments. It has done this proximately with the general government, and from it we learn that from 1800 to 1874 the amount so expended was \$3,326,497 70. The statement was prepared in the Treasury Department, at the request of the Bureau, but is said by the compiler to be "necessarily incomplete, owing to the manner of keeping the accounts in the earlier days of the government. Many books have been bought in all previous years for the different departments of the government, which, for want of a definite appropriation for that specific purpose, have been charged to general objects; and hence such expenditures can not be made to appear in the statement." Besides the contingent expenses, salaries, and so on, the statement contains such items as these: Maps and plans illustrative of French war and war of the Revolution, for Library of Congress, \$1000; files of leading American newspapers, for the same, \$9000; complete file of selections from European publications relative to the rebellion, \$4000; libraries for the Territories—Congress gives each of them a library costing about \$5000; library for the Executive Mansion, \$4250; for the purchase of Jefferson's library, \$23,950; that of James Pettigru, of South Carolina, \$5000; the Peter Force collection, \$100,000; the purchase of the books and papers of General Washington, \$45,000; of Jefferson's manuscripts, \$20,000, and printing the same, \$16,200; of those of Madison, \$68,000; of Monroe, \$20,000; of Hamilton, \$26,000; and various other purchases, the expenditures for which do not seem so judicious.

An admirable measure for the comparison of the progress the country has made in acquiring and organizing the means for literary culture during the century of its existence is afforded by this special report, in a chapter entitled "Public Libraries of ten principal Cities." These cities are Baltimore, Boston, Brooklyn, Charleston, Chicago, Cincinnati, New York, Philadelphia, St. Louis, and San Francisco. Four of these cities have themselves been brought into existence during the century. In comparing the condition of the country at the present time, in regard to its public libraries, with that it occupied a century ago, it will be found that Boston has regained the

ascendency. Its Public Library, both for the enlarged spirit with which it is conceived and the generous liberality with which it is conducted, holds the first rank among the public libraries of the country, considered especially in their educational influence. Its organization embraces not only the central building, but also six branches, one each at East Boston, South Boston, Roxbury, Charlestown, Brighton, and Dorchester, at all of which books may be received and delivered. On July 1, 1875, its collection amounted to 280,709 volumes, the central building having been dedicated January 1, 1858. The public spirit with which the library is conducted has been so clearly recognized by the public that it has received many and valuable gifts of special collections. That it is really a public library is shown by the fact "that the total daily book delivery during the last library year" was for each open day more than 2500 volumes. To perform the varied duties necessarily implied in so large a business there is an ample staff, consisting of the superintendent, a secretary, dispatch clerk, auditor, and messenger, while each of the seven departments of the library has also its force: the Bates Hall circulating department, a keeper and six assistants; the Lower Hall circulating department, a keeper and twenty-two assistants; the catalogue department, a superintendent and fourteen assistants; the ordering and receiving department, a clerk and three assistants; the shelf department, a custodian and two assistants; the janitor's department, a chief and two assistants; the bindery, a foreman and eight assistants. In the six branches there are six librarians and forty-one assistants. This makes a force of 116 persons, of whom more than two-thirds are women.

The expenses of the administration are, for salaries, \$61,000; books and binding, \$36,000; other expenses, \$26,000—making a total of \$123,000. A quarterly bulletin, making an addition to the catalogue, is regularly published, and the accessions to the library are made first by the judgment of the regular purchasing agents of the library, and second by the demands made by the public for books not in the collection. These demands are made upon blanks furnished by the library for the purpose, and are provided as soon as possible, a notice being sent to the person making the demand. If the book is too costly, or any other sufficient reason prevents the purchase, the inquirer is notified. This excellent system gives to every one using the library the feeling that it is really a public library, and conducted in his interest as one of the public. The books of the library are free to the use of any one in the building. To take them away, the applicant registers his name and address; inquiry concerning him is made, if it is thought

necessary; and when satisfactory, a card is given him on which his name is written. This serves as his authority for taking out books, he presenting it when he does so, and having it stamped, together with the slip for the book he obtains. These cards are registered; and thus the library has a directory of its customers, the list now reaching over ninety thousand. For the delinquents—those who do not bring back the books they have borrowed at the right time or in good order—there are penalties. After a certain number of days a fine commences. Then a messenger is sent after the offender, and until the account is settled, the library is closed to him. By a special statute, injury to the books is made punishable by fine and imprisonment. The experience of the Boston Library is the same as that which has been found to uniformly attend a system in which the customers were treated as honest until they had proved they were not. The loss of books is wholly inconsiderable, that for the year 1874-75 being one out of every 8921 books lent, or an average of one-ninth of one per cent. Suspicion and distrust are the marked characteristics of the savage. Every stranger is an enemy, and a striking instance of survival is seen in the persistent manifestation of this tendency even among persons calling themselves civilized. On the other hand, a confidence that is even long-suffering under deception is the surest evidence of culture, of that well-balanced self-consciousness which does not desire to elevate itself by the detraction of others. It is, therefore, most gratifying to find the special report using the following language concerning the losses sustained by public libraries through the negligence, dishonesty, or other default of borrowers, and through the ordinary wear of books in circulation. It gives a table showing the experience of twenty-three libraries for different periods, ranging from one to eighteen years. Of these libraries one is in San Francisco; one in Waterbury, Connecticut; one in Wilmington, Delaware; fourteen in Massachusetts, in as many different towns; one in St. Louis; three in New York—in New York city, Buffalo, and Albany; two in Ohio—at Cincinnati and Toledo; and one at Reading, Pennsylvania. The report says: "These libraries are conducted in the most liberal spirit as regards affording facilities to borrowers. Many of them are free to all the inhabitants of the towns and cities in which they are situated. Some of them are in small towns, others in large cities. They reach all classes of population in city and country, of all trades and occupations, and all grades of culture and refinement.

"The table shows that out of a total circulation of 6,475,346 volumes, 3068 were lost through borrowers, and 9089 were worn out, being a total loss of 12,157 volumes, or less

than two-tenths of one per cent.....And it appears that nearly three times as many books wear out in honorable service as are lost through carelessness and dishonesty.

"This seems to prove three things—first, that the borrowers from American public libraries are decently honest; second, that they appreciate and treat as they deserve the books they read; third, that the administration of these twenty-three public libraries at least is efficient and vigilant.

"These things being true, it appears that the managers of all public libraries need not hesitate to open wide their doors and bid the public enter. Fidelity to their trust does not require that the way of the reader should be hedged about by illiberal restraints and requirements, but is consistent with his most liberal treatment."

Another point of interest to those interested in studying the practical effect of the public library as an educational influence is found in their Sunday use. It would certainly appear that if there can be no objection to Sunday-schools, there should certainly be no objection to using other educational influences on Sunday. And yet, in a professed deference to public opinion, the opportunities for the very best sort of educational influence which the opening on Sunday of the recent Centennial Exhibition would have given, were lost to the general public, though it seems that there was no objection to privately admitting parties who could bring the requisite influence to bear upon the management.

The opening of the public libraries on Sunday has, however, become sufficiently general, and the uniform testimony of the advantages of such a course is given by the editors of this special report. To the Free Public Library of Worcester, Massachusetts, belongs the credit of having inaugurated this new departure. In 1872 this was first done, and the record shows that in that year 5706 of the public made use of the privilege. This number has increased in 1873-74 to 7179, and in 1874-75 to 10,142. Other libraries, the chief among which are the Boston Public Library, the Cincinnati Public Library, the Chicago Public Library, and the Public School Library of St. Louis, have followed the example with the same increasing success. The superintendent of the Boston Public Library, in his report for 1873, says that the reading-room for periodicals of that institution was used "from one-half to three-quarters of the average week-day use. The frequenters were uniformly decorous, the most favorable feature of the result being that a large proportion of the Sunday visitors were not such as are seen in the rooms on week-days." In his report for 1875 he says "that from the start the use of the central reading-room has been abundantly commensurate, and has justified the move-

ment." The librarian of the Cincinnati Public Library, the Rev. Thomas Vickers, says, in his report for 1875: "Certainly no one who will visit our various reading-rooms on Sunday, and observe the large attendance of the young men of the city, the earnest and thoughtful attitude of by far the larger part of them, and the quiet and decorum which every where prevail, can fail to see that the library, with its Sunday reading, is exciting a powerful influence for good upon the morals of the community." The Sunday use of this library has steadily increased, until it averages 1000 readers a day.

Satisfactory and gratifying as is the testimony of this special report concerning the promptness displayed by the public in making use of the public library as a means of culture, yet it is even more gratifying to find in its pages such evidence, afforded by the librarians themselves, that they comprehend the importance of their function as public educators, and are fully alive to the necessity for practically organizing their business. In fact, no better evidence can be afforded that the public library has already asserted itself as a new factor in American life than the consideration which, during the past few years, the long-felt need for a closer acquaintance with each other has received among American libraries, for the purpose of a more intimate co-operation, and the steps which have been taken toward this end by a convention, held in Philadelphia in the summer of 1876, and by the establishment of *The American Library Journal*. The first suggestion for a meeting of this kind was made in 1853 by Professor Jewett, who, with others, issued a call for a convention of librarians to meet in New York. About eighty librarians were present at the meeting on September 15 of that year. Enough was done at this meeting to show that there was need for a permanent organization, and the convention adjourned, subject to the call of a committee appointed upon this subject; but nothing further was done until the recurrence of the Centennial calling attention again to the subject, the meeting mentioned above was the result.

To the inconsiderate reader it may appear that more space than necessary is taken up in this report by considerations of the best methods of cataloguing. But in reality this feature of the report is one of the most encouraging. There is nothing which seems simpler, to a person unacquainted with its difficulty, than making a catalogue. There are the books, and how easy to catalogue them! So it seems to one who has never tried it, and to such the history of the experience of the British Museum in this respect may be of service. In 1850 there was published a "Report of the Commissioners appointed to inquire into the Constitution and Government of the British Museum."

The commission had been long exercised with the question of a catalogue for the book collection of the museum; and their secretary, Mr. Payne Collier, whom all the students of early English poetry will readily recognize as a competent and industrious student in this branch of literature, undertook, as an extra duty, to show practically how easy it was to make a catalogue, and make it correctly, by producing a sample, prepared at his leisure, from books in his own collection, and with which it was consequently presumable he was perfectly familiar.

This sample he made, and presented as a specimen of how such a work should be done. It contained twenty-five titles, and the slips upon which it was written were given by Mr. Panizzi, the librarian of the museum at that time, to his assistant, Mr. Jones, who made the following report on them:

"These twenty-five titles contain almost every possible error which can be committed in cataloguing books, and are open to almost every possible objection which can be brought against concise titles. The faults may be classified as follows: 1. Incorrect or insufficient description, calculated to mislead as to the nature or condition of the work specified. 2. Omission of the names of editors, whereby we lose a most necessary guide in selecting among different editions of the same work. 3. Omission of the Christian names of authors, causing great confusion between the works of different authors who have the same surname—a confusion increasing in proportion to the extent of the catalogue. 4. Omission of the names of annotators. 5. Omission of the names of translators. 6. Omission of the number of the edition, thus rejecting a most important and direct evidence of the value of a work. 7. Adopting the name of the editor as a heading, when the name of the author appears on the title-page. 8. Adopting the name of the translator as a heading, when the name of the author appears on the title-page. 9. Adopting as a heading the title or name of the author merely as it appears on the title-page—a practice which would distribute the works of the Bishop of London under the names of Blomfield, Chester, and London, and those of Lord Ellesmere under Gowan, Egerton, and Ellesmere. 10. Using English or some other language instead of the language of the title-page. 11. Cataloguing anonymous works or works published under initials under the name of the supposed author; where this practice is adopted, the books so catalogued can be found only by those who possess the same information as the cataloguer, and uniformity of system is impossible unless the cataloguer know the author of every work published anonymously or under initials. 12. Errors in grammar. 13. Errors in description of the size of the book. We have here faults of thirteen different kinds in twenty-five titles, and the number of these faults amounts to more than two in each title.... It is a fallacy to say that errors can be corrected on a subsequent perusal of the titles or in print, unless that perusal be an actual comparison of the title with the book. When we see such a result as is shown above, from an experiment made by a gentleman of education, accustomed to research and acquainted with books generally, upon only twenty-five works, taken from his own library, and of the most easy description, we may form some idea of what a catalogue would be, drawn up in the same manner by ten persons, of about six hundred thousand works, embracing every branch of human learning, and presenting difficulties of every possible description. The average number of faults being more than two to a title, the total is somewhat startling—about one million three hundred thousand faults for the six hundred

thousand works; that is, supposing the proportion to continue the same. But it must be borne in mind that the proportion of errors would increase with the number of titles; that is to say, in drawing up each individual title, would be superadded the errors which would unavoidably occur in the process of arranging the titles, and subsequently in the printing. In short, I humbly conceive that it would be impossible to prove the inexpediency of Mr. Collier's plan more effectually than he has himself done; and I hope I may add, without giving offense, that had I seen these titles under any other circumstances than the present, I should have concluded that the object was to show how nearly worthless would be a catalogue the proposed advantages of which were short titles drawn up and printed within the shortest possible period of time."

Evidently the making a catalogue is no easy task, and the qualifications for it are seldom inborn, but come from patient study and experience. In the preparation, also, for a catalogue, or a system of cataloguing adapted to serve the purposes of the public libraries of America, the ideal should be not only to enable the inquirer to find in the readiest and most certain way what books are in the special collection for which it is made, but it should go further. It should seek to stimulate the reader, lead him on to study the subject in which he may be only partially interested, and, if possible, at least suggest to him, if he does not already know it, that there is a method in the use of books, as there is in every other intelligent pursuit. The Boston Public Library has issued the most suggestive catalogues of this kind. That of the collection in the lower hall may especially be mentioned as very nearly a model of what a catalogue of this kind, intended for popular use, may be. This catalogue embraces "History, Biography, and Travel, including the Histories of Literature, Art, Sects, etc., Politics, Geography, Voyages, Sketches, and Manners and Customs, together with notes for readers under subject references," and is so well made that it is an acquisition to every one who has had practical experience of the value of a catalogue.

The most important contribution, however, to the catalogue future of the country consists in the *Rules for a printed Dictionary Catalogue*, which forms the second part of this special report. The work is most admirably done, and its general acceptance would be of inestimable benefit in securing a uniformity of method and of practice in the public libraries. To bring about such a change in cataloguing would be as important a measure for the literary culture of the public as the introduction of a uniform system of orthography has been for the language itself; for to-day the cataloguers follow generally, as the spellers did before the introduction of the spelling-book, each the dictates of "his own sweet will," and with the same result of chaotic confusion where there should be an orderly uniformity.

Another suggestion, the practical com-

mon-sense of which must commend itself to every one, is concerning the saving of labor and expense which would result to the public libraries by the introduction of some co-operative plan in the preparation of their catalogues. As it is now, with the introduction of every newly published volume, every library which buys it has to enter it on its catalogue, and a thousand libraries doing this implies a thousand persons doing the work, each for himself, which could much more easily be done by one person for the whole thousand. This idea was suggested by Professor Otis H. Robinson, the librarian of the University of Rochester, and has occurred to the librarians in Europe; and a writer in the *Academy* says of it: "With a little arrangement, every English book might be catalogued at the British Museum, every French book at the Bibliothèque Nationale, every German book at the Royal Library at Berlin, every Russian book at St. Petersburg, etc. At a trifling expense these printed slips might be sent to every small or large library. Even when a library is too poor to buy a book, the slip might be useful in its catalogue. There are, of course, other ways in which the same object might be attained, if only the principal libraries would agree on a common line of action.....A few resolutions, carried at an international congress of librarians, might cause a saving of many thousands of pounds annually, and would certainly give us better catalogues than we find at present even in the best administered libraries."

Not only this, but the institution of some complete system for the preparation of such printed slips would easily find supporters among the students of the world, who could by a small subscription thus receive a weekly or monthly record of all the books published in the literary centres of the world, or of those specialties in which they are interested. As the diffusion of such intelligence is at present carried on, to obtain even the merest fragmentary knowledge of this kind requires persistent energy.

So thoroughly practical a system for making public libraries centres for the diffusion of public culture must, of course, react in turn upon the qualifications of the librarians themselves. No ignorant man can attempt to fulfill such a function in a cultured community of readers; it needs a man of natural ability and of special training. The Germans have recognized this, and use the term "library science" to express it. Dr. F. Rullman, the librarian of Freiburg University Library, in a recent work upon this subject, advocates its introduction as a special branch of university culture. He says: "In appointing librarians there is no such guarantees of their competency as is demanded of other aspirants to public office

when they finish their studies. A most essential point is wanting here, viz., the opportunity for a suitable preparation; for the occupation of an assistant librarian seems to be scarcely a full equivalent for it. Aside from the fragmentary character of such a preparation, it can scarcely be taken into account, because there are comparatively few such places, and the choice for future librarians would be limited to a small number of persons.

"Schrettinger, in his *Manual of Library Science* (Vienna, 1834), was the first who advocated the necessity of a special school for educating librarians. He only touches the subject very briefly, and desires that such an education should be given at the chief library of the country, where his manual might form the basis of lectures on library science, and that only the future library officers of that country should have the advantage of such instruction. This, however, would scarcely supply the want of librarians for Germany, and we would therefore, instead of instruction at a library, recommend that library science be studied at the universities, not only in one state, but in the whole of Germany; i. e., we desire that at one of the universities, gradually perhaps at several, lectures on library science should be delivered by competent men. This course of instruction should extend through three years.....After finishing such a course, the student would have to pass an examination before a special committee composed of the professors or persons lecturing on library science, and receive a certificate of qualification for the office of librarian. Such a certificate only should secure to a person the office of librarian."

Though the exhibit of the increase of our public libraries, and the evidence that they have become conscious of their function as public educators, is most satisfactory, yet it is evident that we have, as a nation, but entered upon this career. We start, however, better prepared for the realization of universal culture before the close of our next century's existence than the young States were for the attainment of universal manhood suffrage at the commencement of the century just ended. *Edw. H. Newland.*

VAIN WAITING.

ONE waits and watches all his days away
For what may never come. So looks alone
Some man upon a desert island thrown
For sails that pass not, till, too faint to pray,
He folds his hands and waits the eventful day
When death unintercepted claims his own,
Bids hope lie down by fear, stills the long moan,
And bids the weary feet no more to stray.
None know of the sad life and death, till, lo!
Men voyaging from afar, by fierce winds driven,
Cast anchor on that isle where, tempest-riven,
They see a tree-built house, by which they know
That one has lived and died there, hoped and striven.
They shed their unavailing tears and go.

MARRIED PEOPLE.

MRS. DANFORD went to the dépôt to meet her husband when he came back from the West. Three years ago the firm had taken him from his desk as book-keeper and sent him out on collecting tours: he had been coming and going ever since, but his wife never could get used to it. Before that she never left the house except to go to church or market, but now she went to the dépôt whenever he was coming home, after even a day's absence, once going to Harrisburg, when the train was delayed there, in the middle of the night. Her children thought their mother had all the good sense and even temper there was in the world; but her husband knew that nobody was so excitable and weak as she. It was curious to see how she could single out the stooped, red-headed little man in his linen duster among the thousands pouring out of the dépôt, and how, though she was one of the timidest women alive, she would go straight to him, as though the men about her were so many dead trunks of trees.

He always explained to her how it was impossible for her to go with him now as she used to do on those little excursions when they were first married.

"We haven't the money, Lizzy, and then, who would stay with the children?"

"Oh yes, I know, Richard, that I can't go."

Of course she knew, and he knew that she knew. But he explained it to her every time. If he noticed that her laugh was not steady, or that her chin was quivering, he would go on making droll adventures out of every little happening of his journey, until she laughed in good earnest, and gradually the talk would slip back to those old jaunts of theirs the time they went trout-fishing up to Nittany, or that week they spent in Baltimore when they were snow-bound at Havre-de-Grace. Elizabeth could remember every excuse the fat old conductor made. She had traveled very little.

"In about ten years Charley will be in business, and I shall have made my pile, and we will take Nelly and go to Europe."

That was a standing joke between them. But they seriously did hope that the time might come when they could afford to stay together. "The worst pull will be over when Charley has his schooling," Danford would say, "and then I can save up and go into some little business of my own. I'll never leave you then, Lizzy."

He knew she needed nothing more than that to make her life entirely contented. Yet any body looking at the two would wonder how the insignificant, ugly little man had brought a woman of so much finer grain than himself to love him. But he did not know what any body thought of his wife or himself.

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